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It seeks to help personnel and guidance workers in schools, colleges and universities, vocational counseling agencies, social agencies, business and industry, and government by keeping them informed of developments in the field.

The *Journal* is designed as a publication medium for articles dealing with significant practices in personnel and guidance work, current problems in the field, trends in training personnel and guidance workers, and theory and research that give promise of practical application.

As the official publication of the Association, the *Journal* presents Divisional and Branch news and programs, news about people and events in the field, and reports on Association activities.

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DEPARTMENTS

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WASHINGTON FLASHES

Transmitted by Max F. Baer

SCHOOL PLANS OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS

All seniors: About 47 per cent of high school seniors in United States in October, 1959, intended to enter college in 1960, and another 20 per cent were still undecided, according to findings of inquiry designed by Agricultural Marketing Servi and Bureau of Census. Of course, some persons who planned to enter college will not actually attend in following year, and others who did not expect to attend will actually do so.

Farm and nonfarm youth: One-half of nonfarm high school seniors, compared to one-third of rural-farm seniors, planned to go to college. About one-fourth of rural-farm seniors were undecided about their plans for college attendance, as compare with one-fifth of nonfarm youths.

Males and females: Slightly higher proportion of boys (49.1 per cent) than girls (45.2 per cent) were potential coll entrants. About 34 per cent of rural-farm boys and about 29 per cent of rural-farm girls reported plans to enter college.

FIELDS OF STUDY OF COLLEGE STUDENTS

Fields for males: Same study (above) also sought data on educational status of persons 16 to 24 years old, including major field of study of persons enrolled in college in October 1959. Business and engineering were most frequent fields of study reported by male college students. Here are percentages in rank order: engineering 20.9; business 19.9; education 9.8 biological sciences 9.6; humanities 8.2; social sciences 7.8; physical sciences 5.5; agriculture 2.1; other 11.8; undecided

Field for females: More female college students were maj ing in education than in any other field. This subject was named by almost four out of ten females enrolled in college. Next came humanities with 14.7; then biological sciences 12.6; business 9.6; social sciences 8.5; physical sciences 2.0; engineering 0.9; agriculture 0.2; other 7.9; undecided 5.3.

RECENT POPULATION REPORTS

Total population: Population of United States including armed forces abroad numbered almost 180 million on March 1, 19

ccording to estimates of Bureau of Census. Figure includes population of Alaska and Hawaii. Numerical increase during past decade was by far largest in Nation's history. Gain was 28.7 million people from January 1, 1950, to January 1, 1960. In every eary since 1947 Nation has experienced rate of growth of 1.5 per cent.

Births and deaths: There were almost 4.3 million babies born in USA in 1959. This represents increase of 48,000 over 1958 and is second largest number of children born in Nation during one year. During 1950 decade more than 40 million babies were born. Birthrate of 24.3 (per 1,000 of population) in 1959 represented moderate decline from decade's high of 25.2 in 1957. It is lowest rate registered since 1950. There were about 1.7 million deaths in 1959. Death rate of 9.4 (per 1,000 of population) in 1959 was slightly below average rate for decade.

Size of family: Average size of family increased from 3.54 persons in 1950 to 3.66 in 1959. Families were generally largest in South, with average of 3.81 persons in 1959. However, white families in South had average size of 3.63 persons and nonwhite families, 4.67 persons.

SCIENTISTS AND ENGINEERS IN AMERICAN INDUSTRY

Scientific revolution: National Science Foundation and Bureau of Labor Statistics have published report of 1957 survey of science and engineering in American industry. Though figures are now somewhat out of date, they indicate magnitude of technological revolution sweeping American industry in recent years. Total 728,000 scientists and engineers were estimated to be employed by manufacturing and other industries in January, 1957, to plan and carry out research and development programs and production, administration, sales, and other activities. This represents increase of nearly 30 per cent since January, 1954.

Numbers in major fields: Total number of scientists and engineers included 521,000 engineers and 207,000 scientists. Chemists, largest group of scientists, numbered about 71,000. All other physical scientists together numbered less than 50,000, and life scientists about 16,500. Some 59,000 additional scientists and engineers were classified by their companies as administrators rather than members of a particular scientific or technical profession. Among engineers, rate of gain over three-year period was only about 25 per cent, although absolute increase was much larger than in any single scientific profession. Employment of mathematicians rose most rapidly (88 per cent). Life scientists (including medical, biological, and agricultural scientists) scored gain of 60 per cent, physicists 54 per cent, and earth scientists 37 per cent. Increase of 65 per cent occurred in scientists and engineers classified by their companies as administrators.

Labor Market Participation of Physically Handicapped Persons in Minneso

PERSONS concerned with the hiring, placement, counseling, or rehabilitating of physically handicapped workers have long recognized the need for a base line from which to judge their efforts. Most studies concerning the participation of disabled persons in the labor force have been done on selected samples from which generalizations could not be made. The studies which report on absenteeism, turnover, rates of production, etc., have usually been done on workers in certain companies or industries. Other studies have been follow-ups of persons who have had certain rehabilitation or training experiences. In all cases, selection has been a factor both in being accepted for the job, training, or rehabilitation, and, again, in holding the job, or completing the training or rehabilitation. Data on *handicapped workers in general* have been noticeably meager.

The Industrial Relations Center of the University of Minnesota conducted a survey of the State of Minnesota during the summer of 1958, using accepted sampling techniques, in order to get an estimate of the size and characteristics of the physically handicapped population in Minnesota [2]. A total of 2,440 households were interviewed throughout the state and 521 handicapped persons were identified. Of these persons, 255 were of labor force age and were *not* students or housewives. While
the survey was designed primarily to d
mine the size and characteristics of the
handicapped population of the state, a
tional information was obtained on the
ployment history of these persons in
labor force [3]. The present article d
with some of the findings concerning
employment of this group of physi
handicapped individuals.

Description of the Sample

Three-fourths of the sample were m
The median age was 44 years. Me
schooling was 10 years which was com
able to that of the total labor force. H
ever, more of the survey sample had a
ucation of less than seven years than
the total labor force. Three-fifths of
total sample of handicapped persons
married, although the data show a sex
ference for marital status. Three of
four physically handicapped men were
ried, while only one in four physically h
icapped women in the labor force was
ried. About one-third of the sample
not considered "heads of households"
another nine per cent were responsible
for themselves. The average number o
pendents including self was 2.35 for
total sample, and 3.45 for those classifi
"heads of households."

The nature of the physical disabilit
orthopedic in 35 per cent of the cases,
cardiovascular (18 per cent), and ge
ized and systemic (10 per cent) disab
being the next most frequently occu
conditions. Over half (57 per cent) o
disabilities were caused by illness and
13 per cent by employment accident
regard to broad occupational classifica
the physically handicapped sample ap
mated the distribution of the state's
labor force except that it has a lowe

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This study was supported, in part, by a grant from the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Appreciation for expert guidance in the project is extended to the principal investigators, George W. England and Lloyd H. Lofquist; to the program director, Rene V. Dawis; and to other senior staff members of the Industrial Relations Center.

entage of persons in semi-skilled jobs and higher percentage in unskilled than does ie total labor force.

abor Market Participation

In considering the labor market partici- ation of this group, several things must be ept in mind. First of all, the cross-sec- onal nature of the survey must be remem- ered. Some persons in the sample were ily recently disabled and were still in a eriod of convalescence. Secondly, there ere those persons for whom institutional re seemed appropriate but who were be- g maintained and cared for by the fami- s involved. Lastly, it should be remem- ered that most of the group were without nefit of either counseling or rehabilita- on services.

The survey showed that 59 per cent of the ysically disabled persons were employed d 41 per cent were unemployed. If the employed group is restricted to those rsons who were actively looking for work, en the percentages change to 81 per cent ployed and 19 per cent unemployed. ring the same period, unemployment in nnesota for the total labor force was only per cent [*1*]. Seven per cent of the group d never held a full-time job, and 17 per it had not returned to work since becom- ; handicapped.[1] A majority (64 per cent) of the unemployed group had been unemployed for a year or more.

The median wage earned by the employed group was $65 per week for a median of 40 hours worked. This compared rather unfavorably with wage rates for the total labor force. For comparable occupations, the average wage was $77 for a 39-hour work week.[2]

The median length of time employed on the present job for the employed group or last job for the unemployed group was over four years. This points to considerable stability of employment among these individuals.

An indication of the degree of handicap imposed by the different disabilities on the labor market participation of physically handicapped persons is shown in TABLES 1 and 2. TABLE 1 shows the proportion of individuals within each broad disability group who returned to work after disablement. This table refers only to persons who had worked before becoming physically handicapped. It would seem, from the data in TABLE 1, that being handicapped by a respiratory or orthopedic disability was not as serious as being handicapped by a cardiovascular or neuropsychiatric condition, in terms of being able to return to work after disablement. A sex difference in the proportion returning to work was also apparent, probably reflecting a difference in the economic pressures to return to work after disablement. More than four-fifths of the males returned to work, compared with only half of the females.

Once a physically handicapped person returns to the labor force, what are his chances of staying employed? TABLE 2 shows the present employment status for those persons in each disability group who returned to work after disablement. Individuals with respiratory diseases were able to maintain a relatively high level of employment. Only 62 per cent of those with cardiovascular conditions returned to work

[1] In the February, 1949, Survey of Disability, con- ted jointly by the Census Bureau, the Public ılth Service, the Office of Vocational Rehabilita- ı, the Bureau of Old Age and Survivors In- ance and the Division of Statistics, and the Office he Commissioner for Social Security, it was esti- ed that 60 per cent of the chronic disabled were nediately employable with selective placement, per cent were "age-placement problems," and about 7 per cent were severely disabled and ded vocational rehabilitation before they could placed in remunerative occupations. No esti- es were given on the proportion of the "age- ement problem" group which would need voca- al rehabilitation services.

[2] Computed from *Employment Trends*, Minnesota Department of Employment Security, August-September, 1958. Data on manufacturing and trade occupations.

TABLE 1

Proportion of Handicapped Individuals Who Returned to Work after Disablement, by Disability Group

	N	*Male, % of N returning to work*	*N*	*Female, % of N returning to work*	*N*	*Total, % of N returning to work*
Respiratory	8	100	1	100	9	100
Orthopedic	59	97	8	50	67	91
Visual, hearing, & speech	8	75	0	...	8	75
Neurological	6	83	5	60	11	73
Generalized & systemic	13	69	3	67	16	69
Gastro-intestinal	11	73	1	0	12	67
Cardiovascular	25	64	9	56	34	62
Neuropsychiatric	10	60	1	0	11	55
Other*	3	100	3	33	6	67
TOTAL	143	83	31	51	174	77

* Includes skin and allergy, genito-urinary, and mental retardation disability groups.

after disablement but, of those who did, 81 per cent were able to maintain employment. In contrast, 73 per cent of those with neurological disabilities returned to work after disablement, but only 63 per cent of them were able to maintain employment.

In order to obtain some general idea of the movement of handicapped individuals within the labor market, data were collected on three positions which were considered important in judging the ability of a handicapped person to maintain a given level within the occupational hierarchy. The positions considered important indicators were: (a) job held just prior to disablement; (b) first job held after disablement; and (c) present job (or last job for those who were unemployed at the time of the survey). These jobs were classified according to broad *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* categories. Data on the three jobs were not available for all individuals. About 33 per cent of the sample were disabled *before* entering the labor market. Another 24 per cent of the sample had never worked on a full-time job or had not re-

TABLE 2

Present Employment Status of Persons Who Returned to Work after Disablement, by Disability Group

	N	*Male, % of N employed*	*N*	*Female, % of N employed*	*N*	*Total, % of N employed*
Visual, hearing, & speech	6	100	0	...	6	100
Respiratory	8	88	1	100	9	89
Cardiovascular	16	88	5	60	21	81
Gastro-intestinal	8	75	0	...	8	75
Orthopedic	57	75	4	50	61	74
Generalized & systemic	9	78	2	50	11	73
Neuropsychiatric	6	67	0	...	6	67
Neurological	5	80	3	33	8	63
Other*	3	67	1	0	4	50
TOTAL	118	79	16	50	134	75

* Includes skin and allergy, genito-urinary, and mental retardation disability groups.

turned to work since becoming disabled. A few jobs were unclassifiable because of insufficient information.

TABLE 3 presents a summary of the job comparisons as judged by three members of the research staff who were familiar with the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles.* While it was recognized that much mobility is possible within any one broad category, for our purposes, if a person's job titles remained within a category, the jobs were judged to be on the same level. The movements between most categories were fairly clear cut in terms of being on a higher or lower level, for instance, from clerical to professional or from semi-skilled to unskilled. The comparisons for which there were disagreements among the judges generally involved the agricultural occupations, and these comparisons were placed in the not determinable column.

It will be seen from TABLE 3 that, for those who were disabled *after* entering the labor market, 80 per cent returned to a job at the same level (usually the same job held prior to disablement) or to a higher-level job. Present (or last) jobs were at the same level or higher than: (a) job before disablement for 81 per cent of the group, and (b) first job after disablement for 93 per cent of the group. These high percentages indicate that individuals who had worked before becoming handicapped were generally able to maintain or improve their level within the occupational hierarchy.

TABLE 3

Occupational Success Based on Job Comparisons

Comparison	*Same level,* %	*Higher level,** %	*Lower level,†* %	*Not determinable,* %
Job after disablement versus job before disablement	67	13	12	8
Present (last) job versus job before disablement	59	22	10	9
Present (last) job versus job after disablement	80	13	5	2

* The first job in the comparison is of a higher level than the second job.

† The first job in the comparison is of a lower level than the second job.

Another objective indicator of the effect of a physical handicap on the ability of a person to compete in the labor market is the amount of his earnings. TABLE 4 compares earnings on the first job after disablement with earnings on the job held before disablement. About 53 per cent of the group indicated that their earnings after disablement were the same or better than before disablement. While there appeared to be a tendency for generalized and systemic, neuropsychiatric, and neurological disabilities to have more of an unfavorable effect on earnings, there were no statistically significant differences between the various dis-

TABLE 4

Earnings on First Job after Disability Compared with Earnings on Job before Disability

Disability	*N, %**	*More, %*	*Same, %*	*Less, %*	*Don't know, %*
Respiratory	9	44	22	33	0
Visual, hearing, & speech	6	33	33	33	0
Cardiovascular	21	10	48	33	10
Orthopedic	61	18	34	34	13
Neurological	8	13	25	50	13
Generalized & systemic	11	9	27	55	9
Neuropsychiatric	6	0	33	50	17
Other†	12	17	50	17	17
TOTAL	134	17	36	36	11

* Percentages rounded off to the nearest whole number.

† Includes skin-allergy, genito-urinary, gastro-intestinal, and mental retardation groups.

ability groups in the proportion of those earning the same or more and those earning less after disablement as before disablement.

In connection with the above findings, it is interesting to note that 69 per cent of the entire group felt that their disability had affected their over-all earning capacity, while only 25 per cent felt that it had not. Actually, as is shown in TABLES 3 and 4, the majority of the group seemed to have been able to maintain their job status and pay levels. This self-perceived restriction on earning capacity probably refers to some limitation in their job mobility. In most cases, after becoming handicapped, the individuals returned to the jobs held before disablement.

As a final point in this study of the labor market participation of handicapped persons, characteristics of unemployed individuals who were actively looking for work were compared with those of unemployed individuals who were not looking for work. No differences between the two groups were found in age, sex, age at disablement, education, number of dependents, occupations, having had employment experience before disablement, and number of months before returning to work after disablement. However, the two groups differed significantly in their disability distributions. While 33 per cent of the total unemployed group were looking for work, 52 per cent of the orthopedic group, but only 19 per cent of the cardiovascular group and 15 per cent of the generalized and systemic group, were looking for work. Furthermore, the two groups differed in the length of time the individuals had been out of work at the time of the survey. Only one-fifth of those who were looking for work had been out of work for more than one year, compared to 55 per cent of those who were not looking for work.

Conclusions

The data presented above clearly picture how the physically handicapped face the hard realities of the labor market. The fact that most individuals who had worked before disablement were able to maintain their occupational status levels and, to a lesser extent, their earning capacities is most encouraging. The average length of time on present (or last) jobs, combined with maintaining consistent levels within the occupational hierarchy, points to the considerable stability of these persons in the labor market. This fact should be of importance to the employer who is concerned with the high cost of labor turnover. However, the high percentage of unemployment, much of which seems to be of long duration, seems to be the most significant finding of this survey of the physically handicapped population of Minnesota.

References

1. *Employment Trends.* Dept. of Employment Security, St. Paul, Minn., August-September, 1958.
2. Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota. *Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation: VI. A Survey of the Physically Handicapped in Minnesota,* IRC Bulletin 26, December, 1958.
3. Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota. *Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation: VII. Factors Related to Employment Success,* IRC Bulletin 27, May, 1959.

MULTIFACTOR TESTS BOOKLET REPRINTED

The Use of Multifactor Tests in Guidance, the booklet containing the series of articles from the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* on this subject, has been reprinted. A limited number of booklets are available from APGA Headquarters at $1.00 per copy. Postage is extra unless payment is remitted with the order.

COUNSELING:

Philosophy or *Science*

DUGALD S. ARBUCKLE

PSYCHOLOGY and medicine have long regarded themselves as sciences, and those individuals involved in psychology or medicine have generally been considered as being of the empirical scientific mind, using the products of science, if not actively involved as scientists. When Freud first presented psychotherapy to the world, it was presented as a science; and religion, which probably felt itself as the world's custodian of philosophy, bristled, and the battle that had been joined for centuries between science and religion was joined between psychotherapy and religion. There has been much in the way of rapprochement, although it is somewhat uneasy, and while magazines are quick to print articles by scientists on topics which indicate the closeness of religion and science, they are not so eager to print a similar number of articles on the more threatening and, therefore, more unpopular topics which might indicate why science and religion must remain apart. In recent years, however, the question of the relationship of psychotherapy to science and/or philosophy has put a somewhat different light on this issue, since psychotherapy viewed as a science will not be seen to have quite the same relationship with religion as if it is viewed as being heavily weighted on the philosophical side. Let us look at this question of counseling as a science, or a philosophy, or both.

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Presidential Address delivered on April 12, 1960, during the APGA Convention, Bellevue-Stratford Hotel, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Capacity and Skill

As long as counseling was thought of as an integral part of medicine it was thought of, rightly or wrongly, as an empirical science. The younger field of psychology was probably pushed even more in the scientific direction by its fierce desire to be as good as, or to excel and in some way surpass, its more well established brother, medicine. Thus, psychology took on the jargon of medicine. While psychologists do not think of themselves as medical personnel, medicine, with some ignorance of psychology, considers psychology to be a slightly wayward son, but still, without question, a member of the family to be controlled and directed by the older head of the household! Psychologists, not without cause, became proud of themselves as scientists, and it is likely that the psychologist of old, being somewhat less of a service individual than the family doctor, became more scientific, and possibly more unapproachable, than the family doctor. Involvement in research was, and is, as important to medical doctors as it is to psychologists, despite the fact that both of these individuals, when they are involved in service relationships with their fellow humans, make use primarily of learned skills and of their capacity to develop a warm relationship with another person. The medical doctor, working more *on* the physical body of a patient, possibly has more need of overt skills, whereas the psychotherapist, working *with* the individual as a person of feelings and emotions, has more need of the capacity (surely not a skill) to establish a close and warm relationship with another

person. They can use the research findings of others, but they themselves are not researchers.

Psychiatrists and psychologists whose full-time job was a service relationship have not generally functioned as scientists, but until the advent of Rogers, psychotherapy was generally accepted, professionally, as an almost completely scientific pursuit. Rogers' careful elaboration through the years of client-centered psychotherapy, however, brought to the fore this question of the relationship of counseling to philosophy. For many of the more empirical psychologists, philosophy was, and is, a dirty word, and this writer has more than once heard Rogers described somewhat scornfully as "nothing but a philosopher." The psychologist as a scientist is by no means all wrong, of course, in being somewhat suspicious of the philosopher, who may sometimes be too prone to accept on "faith." History does tend to present a rather dismal picture of what happens when people do not insist on asking "why" and do not require some evidence before they accept something as the truth to be followed blindly. They do not want the faith that makes one say "I know that I can see a new body in the heavens, but my faith says it cannot be there so it cannot be there." This is the sort of faith that has made religion the enemy of science.

The Loss of the Person

In discussing the counselor's responsibility in rehabilitation, Patterson [2] effectively describes what is all too often thought of as the scientific method in counseling:

> He *determines* the eligibility of clients as clients and the feasibility of their rehabilitation; he *appraises* the client's vocational potential and the probability of his success; he *evaluates* the suitability of various jobs; he *interviews* the client *toward realistic* (as defined by himself) goals; he *develops* a vocational rehabilitation plan with all its parts; he *carries out* the plan, implementing and administering its various aspects; he *makes referrals* to related services. One might ask: What is the client doing all this time? Too often he is literally doing nothing, except what he is told to do by the counselor.

And might we add that the possible reason that the client is doing nothing is because he is viewed as an object, a piece of material, to be manipulated, after all, by the counselor who has the knowledge and the know-how not possessed by the client. Patterson wrote this as a protest against the all too prevalent concept of vocational counseling, but surely it describes, frighteningly, what happens when the client becomes lost as a person, as a human being, as one who is not to be accepted and understood as he is, but rather as something which must be manipulated and modified so that he can become another faceless creature in a one man Big Brother Society.

Thus it would seem to me that the scientific method with objects and things is fine, and while we cannot suggest that we should toss the scientific method out of the window when we deal closely and intimately with people as we do in counseling, we might at least look with some caution at certain aspects of counseling which might be associated with the more scientific approach:

1. The function of science is to determine what is, and, as a result of this determination, predict what might be, but the scientific prognosis is based on evidence and facts. It is not concerned with values, with what ought to be, and this has not generally been a problem for the medical doctor, since man's physical body is not concerned with what ought to be either. A leg is smashed; there are certain proven techniques which have shown themselves to be superior over others in the mending of the broken leg. The leg does not ask, "Why should I mend?" or "What difference will it make if my leg does mend?" or "How did I come to get into this situation which resulted in a broken leg?" Thus as long as the medical doctor functioned as a surgeon, he could well be scientific, but as soon as he began to work with the owner of the leg, a human being who had a mind, his organic scientific knowledge began to fail him. This probably posed no problem for the earlier medical doctor, who actually knew very little other than how to use his few skills and dispense his few medicines, but if he was an intelligent individual, concerned with human values, then he prob-

ably functioned very much as a philosopher and a counselor. When Freud appeared on the scene with the first studied presentation of psychotherapy it was offered as a science, although Freud was probably thinking of the dangers of the "too scientific" approach when he said, "Cases which are thus destined at the start to scientific purposes and treated accordingly suffer in consequence; while the most successful cases are those in which one proceeds, as it were, aimlessly, and allows oneself to be overtaken by any surprises, always presenting to them an open mind, free from any expectations" [*1, p. 326–327*]. Freud was no doubt influenced by his medical background; and with his generally anti-religious point of view, it is little wonder that there was not too much in the way of a philosophical approach to psychotherapy. It should be noted too that, then as now, philosophy tends to be related to religion, and while this is obviously true, it is not correct to assume, as some theologians do, that in order to be a philosopher, one must be allied with a denominational religion. Some of the greatest current and past minds in philosophy have been, and are, looked at with some suspicion by the more orthodox of their theological brethren.

Thus, in a way, man moved into the study of the psychological and philosophical nature of man, with very little in the way of knowledge about the former and a general bias toward the latter. To some degree this skill holds today, with the psychologist, as the newcomer in the field, taking on many of the characteristics of the medical profession even while he strives with might and main to prove that he is different, as obviously he is!

Science and Values

The theologian has not generally been considered to be very scientific, being, rather, a man of faith. As he moves into the therapeutic arena, however, will he tend to become more scientific, and if he does, what will this do to his faith? While one might agree with Walters [*3*] that "existential anxiety is properly the object of priestly concern, while pathologic anxiety is the concern of the psychotherapist," this author could not accept the implication that existential anxiety is not the concern of the psychotherapist. This very example might be an excellent indication of the difference between the psychotherapist as a scientist, and the psychotherapist as a philosopher. If the therapist is concerned only with the pathological, and this is often thought of as the logical concern of the medical doctor and the clinical psychologist, then he can probably remain as the empirical scientist. Once, however, he becomes concerned with the more "existential" aspects of anxiety (and how could one be a psychotherapist without having this concern) then he has entered the realm of philosophy. Certainly it is not man's acts that cause him stress and strain so much as it is the guilts, the anxieties, the fears, the frustrations that have come to be associated with these acts. An individual is not disturbed by the physical act of masturbation until he learns that it is bad for him to masturbate, and something dreadful will happen to him if he does; one is not distressed about hating a miserable parent unless one has learned that one is always supposed to love one's parents; one is not too concerned about killing one's fellows as long as we know they are our enemy and must be killed, and that we will be rewarded for the act. These are surely matters of values that bring in questions about who we are, what we are around for, what is right and what is wrong, and these are questions for which it is difficult to pose a clear-cut empirical answer. One might be scientific in his attempts to evaluate what happens as a result of his counseling, what might happen if he does this instead of that, what happens if a certain variable (difficult to isolate in the social sciences) is introduced, and so on, but how scientific can he be in his actual relationship with the client, which after all is what counseling is.

Certainly the organic aspects of psychotherapy can be scientific. Neither the patient nor the medical doctor is in the realm of philosophy when both are involved in a brain lobotomy or an electro-shock or in the injection of various drugs. Here one

can be somewhat pragmatic and, on the basis of statistical evidence, say that we will use thus and so procedure on this helpless patient, with no involvement on his part, and we know the statistical odds that this, instead of that, will happen.

2. The traditional case study approach, revered by social workers, might also be considered to be somewhat scientific, since it tends to be an investigation of what is, without the personal involvement of the client and without the personal involvement and intrusion of the values and ideas and thoughts and feelings of the counselor, other than those which are based on evidence. Again, however, when the social worker becomes a counselor, she is no longer working *on* a case, but *with* a human being, and again the question arises. How scientific can one be in the actual close personal relationship between client and counselor or does the very "scientificness" of one's approach render him less effective?

3. Many of the techniques and methods of counseling might logically be described as being scientific. Thus, diagnosis is an empirical means of assessment of an individual or his problems. The whole process of analysis and interpretation can really be defended only on the basis of a scientific validation of their use. Thus, it would probably be correct to say that psychotherapy, as it is allied with, or the son or relative of medicine and/or psychology, will tend to have a strongly scientific tinge, and certainly many counselors, in their descriptions of psychotherapy, would refer to it as "the science of . . . ." Surely one could agree with the counselor who states that if psychotherapy and counseling are to have the status of a profession, then its practitioners cannot say that they operate on faith and intuition, and that they don't need any evidence as to whether the client is any better or any worse because of their ministrations. This is surely the road to quackery, and counselors unfortunately already have more than their share of quacks! On the other hand, if one thinks of counseling in more Rogerian terms, with the stress on the relationship between the client and the counselor, rather than on the things that the counselor does with or to the client during the relationship, then one enters the realm of the more subjective, the realm of feelings, and, one might even say, possibly the realm of intuition, at least educated intuition! This does not mean, however, that there is not a great need for empirical evidence on the counseling process, but it does raise the question as to whether or not the counselor can be the empiricist who does the research.

The actual counseling, of course, is simply a reflection of the counselor himself, and the general low level of counselor competence is, I fear, due not so much to the lack of training, as it is to the lack of education. In fact, it might well be that a real education has an inhibiting effect on one's training. We train technicians who ask the more empirical question "how," but only the educated man can ask the more philosophic question "why." If counseling is concerned with human dignity, and freedom, and integrity, then surely the "why" of our counseling takes precedence over the "how." We need more counselors, possibly, who know how to do things, but we need in vastly greater numbers those who know why they do what they do. When this happens we may have hope that counselors, as individuals who have found for themselves that wonderful deep sense of their own worth and dignity and integrity, will then be able to help children to slowly gather this strength in themselves. Then they too can stand, alone, if need be, unshatterable and unafraid. These are the people we need desperately in our present day society, where individual acquiescence to the group is considered to be democracy, and where individualism would almost seem to be akin to treason.

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Some Ethical and Scientific Values in the Counseling Psychotherapeutic Process

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THE ENGLISH essayist, G. K. Chesterton [1], once described a young man who left England on a journey of discovery. He was determined to discover by himself a perfect country and there settle and raise a family. He went from city to city, from civilization to civilization, from the most primitive to the most developed, in a difficult and thorough search. Finally, across a sea he came to an unknown shore and found there if not a perfect setting, one that was the most satisfying. And as he explored, in delight, his newly found land, he climbed a hill to look at a new landscape and there saw off in a distance, the gleaming towers of the cathedrals and buildings of London. He had found by long and arduous pursuit, what he had, in a way, always known and loved.

The counseling psychotherapeutic process is, as I have seen it, a search for values but not in the usual sense of this phrase. It is rather, an adventurous and thrilling personal pursuit, in an independent and sometimes seemingly dangerous way, of values which are uniquely new and personal for the client. As the therapeutic process moves forward, one of the most consistent things I have observed is the increasing anxiety of the client, particularly the younger client, to safeguard his newly acquired cache of self-determined values and to resist forcibly the counselor or anyone else trying to impose, even surreptitiously, values from the outside.

But the astonishing thing here is, as Chesterton's analogy suggests, that this intensely jealous and often fiercely independent pursuit does not necessarily produce social rebellion or philosophical and theological anarchy. Rather, the opposite seems most often to happen. When the client, with deep personal integrity and security, probes himself in the searching and sincere profundity of his relationship with the counselor, he retraces the basic steps by which civilization and society itself has, in some way, been formed. Or to put it another way, he surprisingly finds, in this absolutely personal pursuit, many of the basic values that are most fundamental to our whole Western Civilization and often shared in varying forms by all civilized societies if these societies are really understood. Here, it seems to me, with a strange twist and in a way G. Stanley Hall and others of his time would perhaps never have dreamed, we have "ontogeny recapitulates phylogeny."

In this paper, therefore, I would like to discuss (1) the client's personal pursuit of values in client-centered therapy particularly as I have observed it in clients, and some things this seems to imply, and (2) how this is related in some ways to the philosophical and theological value systems of Western Civilization.

A Greater Rationality

Rogers has recently said, describing his observations of this same therapeutic process, the following:

> I have little sympathy with the rather prevalent concept that man is basically irrational, and that his impulses, if not controlled, will lead to destruction of others and self. Man's behavior is exquisitely rational, moving with subtle and ordered complexity toward the goals his organism is endeavoring to achieve. The tragedy for most of us is that our defenses keep us from being aware of this rationality, so that consciously we are moving in one direction while organismically we are moving in another [5, p. 202].

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A major factor in personal conflict and unhappiness, as Aristotle pointed out, is this fact: that a person can seek an apparent good which satisfies one or the other of his needs but which is actually contrary to the over-all reasonable good of his whole person. Problems arise apparently because an individual's craving for particular personal, emotional, or sensual satisfactions are leading him away from the reasonable goals which he ultimately seeks. A man is, therefore, capable of a most complex self-deception. He can allow himself to be misled by particular urges to objects and goals which he knows will not really satisfy him nor ultimately be good for him.

For a number of years now we have been doing research on this process of the shifting perception of motivating personal values in the client's counseling awareness. It invariably involves a shift in focus and an increasingly broader realization of all the factors involved in a situation or personal relationship. This in turn results in a changing perception of what is really good and thus his choices and actions change. We have discussed this research elsewhere [3] but to illustrate this, may we consider excerpts from a second interview and contrast it with the insight stage of the tenth interview with the same person [3].

These data were drawn from a series of interviews of a married woman in a serious infatuation with another man. In the second interview the only thing she considers beyond herself and John is one brief phrase: "I've got people that I don't want to hurt either." In the whole of the first and second interviews the above statement represents the only expression of consideration for any factors or persons except herself and John. However, if we contrast this limited viewpoint with the insight stage of the tenth interview, we have a striking change in perception. The superimposed image of John and herself has given away to quite a different picture of the whole situation.

> When John and I were together it just sorta pushed everything into the background . . . But you just can't turn aside and say, "Well, I'm going back to where I was"—even though I, if I really wanted to—I couldn't do that. It's hard to give up John after all the good times we've had and the things we've done, but when you stop and think what could have happened why you see things different. (Long pause) . . . but I know even now, just by not seeing John, I'm better physically and spiritually too . . . Yes, the way it was before I wasn't really happy, it was just a state of conflict and misery and fear of being found out and thinking of the kids and all—no, it really wasn't happy, even when it seemed most enjoyable . . . There's no happiness in it. You're always under a constant strain. (Pause) I'll lose a lot in a worldly way but I'll gain too. I would gain more than I would lose spiritually.

Observe here the perceptual language in the phrase, "When John and I were together it just sorta pushed everything into the background," suggesting the superimposed image of "John and I" blocked out the over-all awareness of her responsibilities to her husband, family, and God. The second phrase, "But when you stop and think what could have happened why you see things different," suggests that the thinking process of the counseling interviews also brought about a different self-perception. When we analyze what is the difference in these perceptions, it seems to be the removal of the superimposed, narrowed focus on "John and I" for the broad reality awareness of the responsibilities to husband, children, and God. Now, even though giving up John is a severe sacrifice when she focuses on the pleasure that John brought her, she sees herself to be better off physically and spiritually, when her perceptions are clearly on the total field of responsibilities, as distinct from John [3].

Stated in goal-directed language, this viewpoint would suggest that the superimposed image is itself an apparent good and that the self tends to move towards this apparent good until its perceptions are broadened and the reasoning and insightful process of the personality, in this case brought about through counseling, brings out from the background the real good, the total perceptual field. This puts into its proper perceptual organization the immediate good, which in this case, came from the relationship with John. When the immediate good is measured against the total perceptual field of all values involved, the

self chooses and moves towards the relationship of husband, children, and God in the total perceptual field, as the real good, and rejects the apparent good which previously was a narrow focus on "John and I."

Toward Inner Values

We see too in these insight excerpts and this description of the therapy process, a goal-directed and self-responsible morality. That is to say, we are not dealing here with some type of built-in Kantian "categorical imperative" which can be variously explained by the effects of social mores or early conditioning and learning of cultural attitudes or the imposition of family attitude or some other type of code. All these things may in fact be operating in the client in the counseling relationship and probably are operating, but the peculiar quality that the therapeutic process seems to reveal is an inner capacity where, by holding up inadequate and ultimately unsatisfactory goals, I can stimulate myself to want these goals and to project on them much more meaning than they really have. Evil, then comes in the degree to which I am responsible for such self-deception and for the impulsive yielding to emotions or basic drives which cause me to seek these disproportionate goals.

Obviously, there is a wide variety of degrees of responsibility in such matters and while certain objective factors—such as legal or theological codes may determine—doubtless enter here, there is at the same time almost always a strong factor which only the person himself at the deepest level of his self-understanding—best acquired through counseling—would only know and be able to reveal.

We see in the therapy process therefore, an inner value system which is yet objectively effective in producing a better operational fulfillment and achievement. Operational reality, by implication, has apparently some kind of reasonable substructure, granting all its apparent disorder, into which the client's own reasonable process penetrates. The therapy process, as we see it, ultimately facilitates not only a more reasonable integration and control of the personality but also somehow a better, more adequate way of living. This pursuit of a basic reasonableness in the midst of widespread disorder, which the counseling therapy process implies, is what joins its implications to our whole legal, social, philosophical, and theological tradition in one of its most ancient Judaeo-Greek-Christian forms.

Let us pursue further what happens philosophically in the client's therapeutic process. It seems to me one way of illustrating what happens might be symbolized by a triangle. The client begins at the point, with unique and personal events, situations, feelings, and reactions that seem peculiarly to happen only to him. Slowly he moves down to the discovery that others share many of these things—that he is not as different or unique as he thought. He begins to adapt himself to others and to learn from others but in a way most interestingly personal and self-determined. In counseling, where the counselor struggles to understand him and thus he is helped to understand himself, he studies and investigates himself in an intense search which the counselor's responses keep objective and in a sense impersonal.

The Discerning Listener

In our focus on the release and emotional oneness and commitment of the counseling relationship, we have perhaps somewhat overlooked the degree of value that the counselor's accurate understanding and verbalization adds to the client's clarification and objectification of himself. In a recent research project we have been having clients comment on their reactions to the interview a few minutes after it is over. One of the most consistent comments is the way the counselor's response helped them to understand what, in a complex and often emotionally involved way, they had just said. The following illustrates this:

> I've never been listened to so well—no one before ever cared so much about what I was saying. I have confidence in speaking. Even if what I say is stupid or foolish, I am not made to feel stupid or foolish myself. I trust the counselor to hold what I say and not to let it slip or become blurred. In such a situation I can react to

myself and my own thoughts and feelings much as I might react to those of someone else. There is an objectivity about the counselor's responses that is freeing.

Another person said:

> When I finished last time I thought I was too confused to say anything more. Then, as I heard your responses, I somehow understood what I had said and it seemed very easy to say something further. I didn't sound really as foolish or stupid as I thought. I began to become understandable to myself.

But this reasonable objectivity about oneself in counseling is the exact opposite of a cold analysis. On the contrary, it is only possible to a maximum degree in a profound relationship of mutually deep commitment. It is a commitment made possible by a love on the counselor's part which Greek and Medieval philosophers called *amor benevolentiae*—a love that concerns only the other and his good. This they contrasted with *amor concupiscentiae* where the person was seeking some self-determined return from the other. But in the commitment of mutual love of *amor benevolentiae*, the counselor is not only a catalytic agent of emotions, he is at the same time and even more essentially a warm, understanding, auxiliary reasoning power.

Toward Ultimate Values

Where does this mutual process of client reasonable self-search lead? It leads, it seems to me, down the triangle to issues and values that are increasingly more universal and more ultimate. It can lead—it does not always—to the most ultimate question of all, the meaning of life itself and to a struggle with all these final anxieties which in the traditional language of Western Civilization one would have to call philosophically metaphysical and theological.

But even when the basic and most universal issues of life, symbolized by the broad base of the triangle, are not questioned by the client, they seem contained and implied in the values by which he questions and changes more immediate personal situations. Some years ago Rogers wrote, discussing a case, that insight tends to move through the "difficult and painful . . . not for its immediate but for its longtime satisfaction" [*4, p. 210*].

This awareness might be carried to ultimate conclusions. The analysis of the counseling process demonstrates that increased insight and a broader understanding of his personal values, aims, and purposes enable a person to direct himself towards and eventually to reach, more ultimate goals that are more permanently satisfying. But no transient, material thing can, upon analysis, produce the permanent security, peace, and lasting happiness that each one seeks. The fear of loss is the other side of every human possession and security. This kind of evaluation should logically lead a person to seek a final and ultimate Good, which will be a permanent source of happiness.

Each man seems therefore to be in a state of both being and becoming for which no transient goal or value—however immediately satisfying—can offer any final longtime fulfillment. We seem to have implied here a profound core existential anxiety in man—an essential dissatisfaction to which Augustine's famous remark was applied: "Oh God, Thou hast made us for Thyself Alone and our hearts are ever restless until they rest in Thee." This being and becoming would be then, something both unique and yet shared by all mankind and, I believe, by God.

A Task in Freedom

But it is not only this pursuit of values that are ultimately the most universal and perduringly rewarding that relate the counseling psychotherapeutic process to the pursuit of values well-known in the tradition of Western Civilization. It is also in the more immediate values which the process of change in itself contains.

The counseling psychotherapeutic process at its best facilitates a person's own reasonableness, literally frees him to be more reasonable when he is enslaved by conflicting, emotional, instinctive, or somatic urges. This greater state of reasonableness not only enables him to study himself in an unthreatened and non-defensive way and to accept and use all he

learns about himself, but it also makes him capable of a more adequate judgment of his own immediate or ultimate life goals and better means to them. Finally, this counseling psychotherapeutic process seems to do a third thing. It integrates the person's whole psychosomatic self so that he is now also able—often to his amazement—to do with surprising ease, what he now knows he should do and wants to do.

We have here an illustration in which a client discusses deep positive changes in himself:

> . . . and yet, frankly, it hasn't been at the expense of much consciousness on my part. Does this happen? I just don't know . . . I just don't want to be naive and say that this change has to be due to what we have done at this table. But I know that it is the *greatest* cause for the change. There may be other factors like my work, a change in Marie, and so on, that help to make me more agreeable, too. I'm not perfect or a new person but my temperament has been of fewer moods and less apartness. The changes have been obvious to Marie, too, and she tells me so . . .
>
> Yep, that's it. The same personality with greater control and more integrated function . . .
>
> And the role that you played did it.
>
> If you had said to me to quit browbeating my wife, or to stop this, or to stop that, it would have been a useless attempt. I think that technique would have completely failed. Instead I've brought these things out time and again, time and again. The fruits of these discussions are that I'm better and that the cure has been effortless on my part. I'm not perfect or anything, but I've been so much better, and it's noticeable to others especially Marie [*6, pp. 243–262*].

This, perhaps surprisingly, is very similar to, if not the exact process that Aristotle and many of the ancients and medievalists considered the prudential process. Prudence was considered an incommunicable ability that could be acquired ultimately only by oneself. It could not as such, be taught. The first stage of this prudential process was the self-investigation and inquiry which was called counsel. But this is not seeking counsel from another, as it later implied, but rather taking counsel with oneself, sometimes with the help of another. From this concept apparently came our modern word, "counseling."

This first stage led then to the second prudential stage which involved a double judgment—the rejection of past reactions, operations, and plans and the development of new and more adequate personal solutions. The third prudential stage followed from this and was the self-command stage which brought order and integration into the emotions, impulses, and bodily functions so that a prudent man could carry out what he judged to be according to his own reasonableness.

Values Rediscovered

What I mean to say here in this discussion of the values of the therapeutic process as they relate to our civilization might be best illustrated by an incident reported in the Korean War. There was great difficulty in the soft mucky terrain and the huge modern tanks were bogging down in the mud. But in one section the soldiers found a path, overgrown with bushes and not used for many years apparently, which actually held up even the largest tanks and trucks and immeasurably facilitated their movements. When they investigated the history of this valuable passageway they learned it was at least a thousand years old, constructed by hand in some very ancient, now forgotten dynasty.

This exactly illustrates something of my astonishment in the dawning realization that many of the things this counseling process is revealing about human nature in a fresh and dramatic way, are yet not so completely new but that some of the ancient philosophical conceptions of Aristotle's Ethics and what used to be called the Cardinal Virtues can yet hold this powerful modern and new psychological movement. To be sure, much underbrush and debris have gathered here, that must be swept away. Much misunderstanding, confusion, and misinterpretation of ancient ethical and characterological terms like prudence, temperance, fortitude, and humility must be carefully clarified and adapted to all that we now profoundly know of the therapeutic process. But I am convinced that there is yet much that could be helpful to us, even now, like the ancient

road in Korea. There is evidence, I believe, that would join these new psychotherapeutic discoveries to the ancient ethical tradition and value scheme of our Western Civilization, without in any sense warping the meaning and usefulness of either. But we must be willing to drop our own historical stereotypes and, perhaps, even ancient prejudices and seek to understand these conceptions with something of the freshness and clarity they really had for the men of much earlier times. By this I do not mean necessarily any return to some basic theological or philosophical unity, however desirable this may or may not be. I rather mean the common ethical concepts which in fact we all more or less accept by implicit observation in Western democratic society and which most of us want to preserve for ourselves and our children. But we accept these values too implicitly perhaps, and we are in danger of chopping at the roots of the tree or letting someone else chop at these roots and eventually jeopardize the tree, while we yet enjoy and treasure its fruits. We need to seek, perhaps, not only personal integration but to see that this can also be in some way an integration with the whole civilization that produced us. We need to know not only our relationship to our parents, family, and immediate environment but also to those older peoples whose thoughts and values have affected us with equal, if unknown, potency.

What then, finally, would be the personal values involved for us if we could do this—as the ancient Korean road proved so valuable to the movement of the modern tanks? Basically, I think it would do two things. It would free us from the more recent, probably Kantian, ethical concept that all personal values must be imposed from without which has come not to mean either by parents, society, or even more threatening and dangerous, by the state. It would restore again the possibility of starting out, like Chesterton's traveler, on a thrilling personal pursuit of oneself in a fierce and independent search for reasonable self-values and yet allow that one would ultimately come by this process, not to violent rebellion and anarchy, but to ancient and secure traditional values. These values have helped to carry through many centuries the burden of human hearts and, I think, can still help this burden.

Secondly, this would restore our own sense of belonging to the civilization that produced most of us and is basically responsible for our whole democratic tradition. It would make a place for education in values which in no way would impinge on a man's freedom to be unsparingly honest and sincere with himself in his own self-determined pursuit, through counseling psychotherapy, or by other educational and social means. This kind of personal pursuit the Greeks and Medievalists would have called, with a meaning strange to our modern ears, the seeking of humility. But by this word they would not have meant a fawning, inferior, "Uriah Heep" sort of thing, the "umble" man, but something very clean, dignified, and positive. This concept of humility has been defined as "the reasonable pursuit of one's own excellence." Such a definition, it seems to me, gives in one phrase about as good a statement as anything we have to delineate a core therapeutic concept and basic value scheme. This could be equally applicable to counseling, psychotherapy, education, and society itself without in any way doing violence to society and the rights of others and yet at the same time without distorting or warping the person's profound and deep need of personal integrity, responsibility, and basic independence.

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An Intensive Vocational Counseling Program For Slow Learners in High School

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IN SEPTEMBER, 1956, with the opening of the school year, a demonstration project was initiated in modified English classes in one of the high schools of New York City. The general purposes of the project were to offer an intensive and highly individualized vocational counseling service to the boys and girls, and to ascertain the value of the services offered. The pupils assigned to the modified English classes had all shown difficulty in progressing in the standard curriculum. The project continued through the academic years 1956–1957 and 1957–1958.

The project was conducted by the Federation Employment and Guidance Service (FEGS), a non-profit, non-sectarian vocational counseling and placement agency affiliated with the Federation of Jewish Philanthropies of New York. It was financed by special grants from the New York Fund for Children, Inc.

Purposes. The specific purposes of the project were:

1. To offer a service valuable for its own sake to the boys and girls served by:

a. Assisting them to grow in knowledge and understanding of themselves, and in emotional and social maturity;

b. Helping them to achieve a better understanding of the nature, attractions, and requirements of various occupations, and to relate their own interests and capacities to the patterns appropriate for various occupations;

c. Assisting them to clarify their career-goals and life-objectives, and to plan and take concrete steps towards realistic and suitable careers;

d. Helping to improve mutual understanding of the boys and girls and their parents and teachers, and in this way aiding with home and school adjustment.

2. To experiment with methods of advancing these objectives, and to develop an effective pattern of service.

3. To demonstrate the value of these methods of individual and group counseling for possible inclusion in the program of the public schools or their possible desirability as services by private agencies to supplement the public schools' program.

Description of the Project. Six class groups of approximately 25 boys and girls each were made available for the project, with the cooperation of the school authorities, at George Washington High School, located in a predominantly working-class neighborhood in upper Manhattan. These were all entering tenth grade in September, 1956. Four groups consisted of slow learners assigned to double period, modified English classes, in which they received two consecutive periods (80 minutes) with the same instructor. These were presumably similar in needs and background, assigned to the particular class section arbitrarily on the basis of schedule and other such factors. A fifth double period class group represented a level of academic achievement intermediate between the first four and the general high school population. The sixth consisted of boys and girls regarded by the school as comparable to the first four, but who, for practical reasons of one sort or another, had not been assigned to double period classes.

Three of the four similar double period groups, chosen arbitrarily, received the in-

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tensive group and individual vocational counseling services to be described, and thus became the experimental group (E); the fourth similar group, and the two other presumably comparable groups, were observed for comparison purposes, but did not receive any of the counseling services, and thus formed the control group (C).

The service program integrated, for the specific purposes of the project, the various professional activities of the Federation Employment and Guidance Service: group guidance, psychological testing, individual vocational guidance, parent consultation, conferences with teaching personnel, utilization of occupational information, visits to industry, simulated workshop activities, occupational role playing, and similar services. The major services were (a) the group activities, and (b) the individual counseling services. These are detailed below in terms of content and modifications that developed, tailored to the problems we found and the framework within which we operated.

The Service Program for the Experimental Group

Group Services. Group guidance services performed a basic role in attempting to achieve the specific purposes of the project.

The students were exposed to a series of group techniques designed to engage them in maximum participation. The group guidance sessions were planned on an activity basis, geared dynamically to the student level, and utilizing such techniques as field visits to industry, discussions, role playing, films, panel programs, and workshop sessions. These formed the nucleus of the two-year group guidance aspect of the program.

Some of the topics covered were:

1. What are interests and abilities?
2. What is personality?
3. What should I know about myself?
4. How can I learn to study?
5. How can I find out about the world of occupations?
6. How to prepare for the job interview.
7. How good grooming can help land a job.
8. How to complete a job application blank.
9. How to act during the employment interview.

Past experience of the agency in dealing with slow learners has indicated that duplicating real work situations can be especially helpful in fixing the idea of employment in the minds of students. Within the limitations of the classroom setting, a "factory" atmosphere was created. A boss, foreman, checkers, floor girls and boys were elected. A time card, individual work production cards, and total production records were maintained. These and related "props" were able thus to effectively establish a working "climate," unrelated to the school classroom.

Some of the projects undertaken were button sorting, assembling and packaging of plastic whistles, plier work with electric resistors, and a small tool operation with TV knobs. The workshop sessions were an especially helpful device, bringing to the students the "reality" of work situations, the meaning of repetitive industrial employment, the concept of speed and production, the importance of cooperation among workers, and related values. As a projective device, this technique gave the group counselor a great deal of valuable information concerning the students, which was forwarded to the individual counselor.

Along with the group guidance activities, a highly individualized vocational guidance service was provided the children in the experimental classes. This was designed to help them understand their personal relationships to the world of work and to stimulate movement toward selection of educational and vocational goals.

The use and values of such classroom workshops are not the subject of this report, but this technique contains excellent possibilities for further exploration.

A constant flow of information between the group and the individual counselor concerning the students was maintained. This supplementary information was especially important when the professional workers were able to see various facets of the students' character and behavior as variously expressed in both group and individual settings.

The subject teachers did not participate in the group discussions, but served as observers to familiarize themselves with the content and to follow through on the projects assigned to the class by the group counselor. These subject teachers also provided the group counselor with pertinent student information that rarely appears in the cumulative record and made whatever arrangements were required in terms of shifting schedules, making guidance appointments, and related tasks.

During the project, progress meetings were held with the Guidance Department of the high school. Although these professionals were not directly involved with the program, it was felt that such reports helped to maintain the liaison between the faculty and our professional staff. Exchange of professional guidance information in these sessions was an additional program benefit.

Since the group sessions were conducted during the time normally scheduled for modified English classes, the chairman of that department was also kept current on program activities and any modifications in schedule that required departmental authorization.

Parental cooperation and counseling were also provided, where indicated. The parents were informed of the special program at the outset; an orientation group meeting of parents was held at FEGS during the year, with about one-fifth of the parents participating; and the parents were informed that at any time they could arrange to meet the individual guidance counselor and discuss the progress of their child.

Individual Services. The program of individual services was closely coordinated with the group program, so that the children would have the opportunity of reinforcing and applying to themselves the principles and information which were imparted in the group guidance sessions.

At the outset, all individual appointments for counseling and testing were scheduled at the office of the FEGS in midtown. It was assumed that this would provide a new and useful experience for the children in an adult setting. It was hoped that this would also help them to differentiate the program from the school curriculum in which they had been patently unsuccessful. After several months of experimentation, this practice was abandoned because of a high rate of default in keeping appointments. In an effort to correct this situation and to establish a more effective contact with the students, the counselor shifted his full-time activities to the school, in which office space was provided. This also allowed for closer liaison with teachers and school administrators to discuss the problems and progress of the project and the youngsters.

Individual client service averaged four counseling interviews and four hours of testing per person. There is no attempt here to spell out the counseling process in any detail. A variety of tests was administered, including measurements of intelligence, reading, arithmetic, interests, personality, and several aptitudes (clerical, mechanical, spatial, and manipulative). As part of the process, school records, results of tests previously administered by the school and elsewhere, medical reports (when indicated), and parents' questionnaires were obtained and integrated into the total picture. Parents were offered appointments whenever it appeared desirable. The single purpose of the individual guidance was to make available to the experimental group a highly individualized case service, capable of adapting itself to the problems and needs of each youngster and proceeding at a pace commensurate with his readiness and ability to move ahead in the counseling process.

The Results of the Project

Methods of Analysis and Evaluation. In order to assess the extent to which the vocational counseling services has realized the goals sought, an evaluative study was conducted as part of the project.

Comparable Studies. There has been much research reported in the literature on the evaluation of guidance. Particularly helpful are the reviews of Froehlich [5], Dressel [2], and the National Institute of Mental Health [7]; the third of these lists 984 references on the evaluation of guidance and mental health services generally. A

recent critique [6] discusses some problems of evaluation of guidance, noting that problems of criterion-selection have caused much difficulty.

An earlier project, anticipating this one in some ways, was a study by Flowerman [4] which demonstrated that group methods used in English classes could be effective guidance processes. The immediate predecessors of the current study are the FEGS project for retarded adolescents [3] and the Board of Education's work with potential early school leavers [1], both of which have suggested items, methods, and approaches.

Study Design. Because of limited resources, the comparatively small number of boys and girls, and the diversity of the group, a very simple basic study design was adopted. The pattern is observation-counseling-observation; that is, the characteristics of the boys and girls with regard to some relevant items have been observed before the counseling process, in the course of the project, and at its conclusion.

In order to separate somewhat the effects attributable to the counseling process from those reflecting growth, maturation, school influences, etc., the same observations were made on other comparable students not participating in the project. Thus, several significant comparisons became possible:

1. Initial status of experimental group (*i.e.,* the boys and girls receiving FEGS counseling) with that of the control group (*i.e.,* other students not receiving FEGS counseling).

2. Initial and final status of each group. Changes would be expected in each group; the changes in the control group established the base against which the effects of the counseling process may be appraised.

3. Changes in experimental group in comparison with changes in the control group. Any differences here should reflect the effects of the FEGS service.

Criteria and Data Available. Criterion variables were observed in the area of personal growth and vocational realism. No attempt was made to find a single satisfactory criterion measure. Criterion variables were observed by means of counselors' ratings, school grades, continuation in school, gainful employment, etc., and replies to a simple questionnaire.

All information was coded and recorded on work sheets, then put on punched cards and tabulated by machine.

Tables were drawn up. Standard statistical procedures were applied where appropriate to determine significance of differences observed, and where the differences were significant at 5 per cent or 1 per cent levels of confidence these are so designated.

The questionnaire developed for use in connection with the project and applied to both E and C groups in September, 1956 (at the beginning of the project), in May, 1957 (at the end of the first year), and in May, 1958, follows this article.

Findings

Initial Description of Groups. There were 74 in the E group initially, and 72 in the C group. The findings are reported, however, in terms of the 66 in group E and 44 in group C regarding whom data were available both at the beginning and at the end of the first year of the project.

The major findings may be summarized as follows:

Age: The groups were approximately matched in age. Of the E group, 27 (41 per cent) were less than 15 years and 6 months old in October 1956; 19 (43 per cent) of the C group were less than 15-6. The mean age of the experimental group was 15 years and 5 months, and of the control group 15-7, in October, 1956. The median birthdate for E was just before June 30, 1941, and C, April 30, 1941. These differences are not significant.

Sex: There were 38 boys (58 per cent) and 28 girls in E, and 24 boys (55 per cent) and 20 girls in C.

Test Scores: Scores on some school-administered paper-and-pencil tests were available for most of the children, but not always the same tests, and certainly not administered under conditions of uniformity. Many of the test results also reflect to some extent individual differences in the language spoken in the home.

In terms of estimated levels of academic aptitude, with the qualifications noted above, the median IQ equivalents were ap-

proximately 80 for each group (31, or 48 per cent of the E group, obtained IQ equivalents of 80 or over, in comparison with 20, or 49 per cent of the C group). The dispersion of the C group was slightly greater, with 17 per cent over 90 (E, 12 per cent) and 15 per cent, 70 or under (E, 11 per cent).

The median reading level for both groups was between 5.0 and 5.9, with a slightly higher proportion of E (40 per cent) than of C (28 per cent) above the sixth grade level. This difference is not significant. Since they were in the ninth grade, the group as a whole shows retardation of more than three years. Median arithmetic scores were also in the fifth grade range for both groups, also showing considerable retardation; here, a difference significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence appeared between the proportion of the C group whose scores were known (31 per cent) falling below fifth grade and that of the E group with known scores (13 per cent), but scores were available for only a portion of each group.

School Record: The children attended a number of different schools before attending George Washington High School and took a variety of courses with many different teachers. (Approximately one-fourth of each group attended more than one junior high school.) These factors compound the recognized limitations of grades and ratings. Attendance reflected general social factors in the life of the child and his family to some extent. Information available from previous school records (*i.e.,* in junior high school) includes the following:

Attendance: Approximately three-fourths of the E group and four-fifths of the C group were recorded as absent or tardy over 10 per cent of the theoretical maximum.

Courses and Grades: The members of the E group had initially significantly better grades than the C group (65 per cent at 70 or above, compared with only 31 per cent of the C group). This involves averaging over different courses and instructors. Note also that the E group experienced much more deterioration in grades in the course of their junior high school careers (34 per cent declined, in comparison with only 5 per cent of the C group). Both these differences are significant at the one per cent level of confidence. Taken together, however, they would suggest that the academic achievement levels are comparable, although further data and individual study might reveal further significance to these apparent differences in pattern of school achievement.

Personal and Social Characteristics: Many of the boys and girls are foreign-born and appear to come from non-English-speaking homes of low economic status. Their lives have been characterized by numerous moves from apartment to apartment, involving shifts of schools and disruption of social relationships. Stable homes with both parents living in the home are lacking in many instances. Many of the children have problems or handicaps of one sort or another. Among the major findings are:

Place of Birth: 32 per cent of the E group were born in non-English-speaking countries (mostly Puerto Rico), in comparison with only 12 per cent of the C group; this difference is significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence and should be taken into consideration in interpreting test scores, grade averages, reading level, and other such items.

Family Composition: About one-eighth of the entire groups had living arrangements other than in a home with both parents. There was no difference between the E and C groups in this regard. A significantly higher percentage of the C group than of E are only children.

Recorded Handicaps: The school records indicate some handicapping characteristics, physical, social, or emotional for 23 per cent of the E group and 18 per cent of the C group. This is not a statistically significant difference. Teachers' ratings record "bad" personal interrelationships for 20–30 per cent of each group, with no significant difference between the groups. Of the members of the E group who were rated, 11 (24 per cent) were specifically designated by teachers as "disturbed," "immature," or "dull," significantly less (at the 5 per cent level) than the 10 (53 per cent so

rated) in the C group. Only in one instance, however, did the school record report a social agency contact with a child or his family; there may, of course, be unreported contacts.

Previous Work Experience: The school records show previous work experience for 21, or 19 per cent of the entire group, including 13 boys, or 21 per cent. There are no significant differences.

Replies to Initial Questionnaire: The questionnaire was designed in consonance with the group's reading ability. It was administered in each class by teachers without reference to the project. Although there were many stereotyped or irrelevant replies, it would appear that most of the boys and girls understood the questions and answered frankly to the extent of their self-knowledge and ability to formulate replies. It is not assumed that all answers were carefully thought through and represent accurate reports or fully formulated judgments.

The principal findings can be summarized as follows:

Time spent on homework: About half of each group reported spending two hours or more on homework each day.

After-school activities: It is noteworthy that only 5, or 8 per cent, of the E group (4 boys, 11 per cent of the boys) had after-school jobs; in the C group, 8 had after-school jobs (all boys; 20 per cent of respondents in the C group, 35 per cent of the boys in this group). A higher percentage of the E (29 per cent) than of the C group (12 per cent) however, reported after-school chores. Club and neighborhood activities and sports were most frequently reported.

Number of years expected to remain in school: Nine in each group indicated expectation of training beyond high school.

Occupational choices: Seventeen of the E group (31 per cent of those indicating choices) stated plans in the professional and managerial range, obviously beyond their capabilities; 14, or 35 per cent of the C group made similar choices. Clerical and sales were chosen by 49 per cent of the E group and 48 per cent of the C group. Service occupations other than domestic, a more suitable group of occupations for most of these children, were chosen by only 7 per cent of the E group and 5 per cent of the C group.

Only three-fifths of the experimental group gave reasons for their choices; of these, about half indicated some expectation of enjoying their work, other replies ranging widely, with a number of stereotyped responses. About half of those replying gave some indication of realizing that they must take into consideration the nature of the job or the individual's own capacities.

Preparation for work: In the E group, 31 (47 per cent) gave direct answers to the question of the time expected to elapse before entering the chosen occupation; of these, 19 (61 per cent of respondents) gave answers consistent with the previously stated choices. In the C group, 28 (64 per cent) answered; of these 19 (68 per cent of respondents) gave consistent answers. Only 18, or 27 per cent, of the E group indicated any interest in training beyond high school of any sort; 17, or 39 per cent, of the C group indicated some interest in training. The differences are not statistically significant.

Parents' choices for children: The children's verbal responses show a predominance of agreement with the choice ascribed to parents, rather than conflict over occupational choice. Only a little over 10 per cent of each group stated disagreement by the parents with their choice; but 55 per cent of the E group and 64 per cent of the C group expressed complete accord.

Summary of initial observations: The group as a whole is found to represent poor achievers in school, with unstable backgrounds, many personal problems, and little evidence of maturity or realism in approaching the questions of occupational choice and training. There are differences among the groups; the C group is not strictly comparable to E. The differences are not so great, however, as to render comparisons meaningless.

Description of groups at end of first academic year: Each group was studied at the end of the first academic year (1956–1957)

for purposes of comparison with the initial status of the same group and the final status of the other group. The first reapplication of questionnaires was at the end of May, 1957; 66 members of the E group, but only 44 of the C group, were available for this second questionnaire.

Attendance: There was some improvement in both groups in attendance, although very poor attendance records still characterized substantial numbers. Of the E group, 68 per cent showed the same attendance record or some improvement; of the C group, 79 per cent. This difference is not statistically significant.

Courses and grades: A comparison of academic records at the end of the year shows that both groups made some improvement in grades. The E group retained its relative advantage over the C group. Despite the fact that in junior high school the grades of the E group were suffering deterioration, the proportion showing improvement or remaining unchanged was substantially the same in each group (74 per cent for E and 71 per cent for C), thus showing that the process of deterioration did not continue for the E group in high school.

Changes in replies to questionnaire: Both groups showed considerable increase in maturity and realism in their replies to the questionnaire. Particularly noteworthy are the following findings:

After-school activities: The pattern remains the same, but it is interesting to note that the E group, which initially had a smaller proportion engaged in after-school jobs (8 per cent as compared with 20 per cent) caught up in the course of the year; 21 per cent of E, 26 per cent of C working after school in May, 1957 (only those responding).

Occupational choices: Here there are specific reflections of the vocational counseling received by the E group and not by C. More of E than of C made changes in their expressed vocational choices. Excluding those expressing no choice at the end of the year, 46 per cent of E made changes as compared with 25 per cent of C, a difference significant at the 5 per cent level. Whereas originally there had been no significant difference between the two groups in stereotyped acceptance of parental choices, after counseling the E group showed only 36 per cent accepting parent choices without question, whereas the C group remained unchanged at 64 per cent; this indicates more independent thinking regarding occupations on the part of the E group.

In the E group, the number unrealistically choosing professional and technical occupations declined by six, or 37 per cent; there was no change in the C group. On the other hand, in E there was a gain of three in those choosing service occupations other than household, and a loss of one in the corresponding C choices.

It is interesting also to observe that responses indicating some concept of the importance of work-enjoyment and of training in preparation for work, in both of which the E group showed less realism than C initially, show no differences between the groups in May, 1957. That is, E caught up with C in these respects.

The numbers in each group are small, but substantially all differences are in the same direction, indicating greater maturing for the E group. This lends weight in interpretation to the findings.

Summary of items of comparison: Except for school attendance and dropouts, differences uniformly reflect greater growth in maturity, realism, and occupational awareness on the part of the members of the E group than those of the C group, who received no service as part of the project.

Items Relating to the Experimental Group Only: Additional items of evidence regarding the effects of the vocational counseling service are not subject to comparison with the C group, since they were derived in the course of the counseling process itself.

Counselor's observations: The counselor who worked with the members of the E group individually rated them in terms of knowledge of occupations, understanding of their individual capacities in relation to occupations, level of cooperation in the counseling process, and degree of emotional control. Using as a standard the level experienced with youngsters in general, he found no member of the modified English

group above "average" in the first three of these categories, and almost all "low" or "very low." In terms of emotional control, while none was rated as "high," 51 (77 per cent) were regarded as "average." The ratings for improvement in the course of the year, however, showed approximately 90 per cent improved in terms of knowledge of occupations and of self, and level of cooperation, and no one was judged to have retrogressed. In emotional control, where the group as a whole was less markedly below the expectation, 37 (56 per cent) were reported as showing improvement, and only one (1.5 per cent) appeared to the counselor to have lost ground.

Test scores: The boys and girls in the E group received various psychological tests in connection with the individual counseling service offered them by FEGS. In 58 instances, this included individual intelligence tests (the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale in all but two of these). The results of the individual intelligence testing by FEGS stand in marked contrast to the results reported on the school record. The median IQ equivalent for the E group, according to school records, was 78; on the FEGS tests, 90. Whereas only eight (seven of these were tested by FEGS) were over 90 in school-rated IQ's with none over 100, the FEGS found 10 over 100. FEGS found four under IQ 70; school records showed seven (of whom six were in the group tested by FEGS). A scatter diagram shows a fairly uniform upward movement of about 10 points from school records to FEGS IQ's.

The effect is even greater when the "performance" scores on the Wechsler-Bellevue are used, rather than combined scores. The distribution of performance (*i.e.*, non-verbal) scale IQ's shows a median of about 95, with 16 over 100, the highest scoring 117. Verbal scale scores, however, show higher ratings than those in the school record.

The interpretation of these highly significant changes is not, of course, that FEGS counseling raised the children's intelligence level. Neither is it likely that the generally higher scores are merely retest effects, since very few of the members of the E group are likely ever to have had the same or similar tests, certainly not in recent months. Rather, the large increases reflect more accurate rating obtained by skilled individual testing. This important finding indicates that the less refined group methods greatly underestimated the potential abilities of these pupils. An earlier recognition of their capacities would obviously result in more suitable educational placement and handling.

Students' reactions to project: In the course of the project, students receiving group guidance were asked at various times to indicate what they felt were the reasons for the project, and what they had gotten out of group discussion. While their spontaneous responses reflected their limited background and difficulties in articulation, the replies indicated a focusing of interest in the vocational area and an awareness of the need for giving careful consideration to the question of occupational choice.

Findings at end of second academic year: The project and the study were continued through a second academic year. The data suggest continued maturation and growth in the direction of realism in vocational planning. The advantage gained by the experimental group in the first year was maintained, and the E group continued to show relatively greater progress on the questionnaire.

Only 65 or 88 per cent of the original E group and 60 or 83 per cent of the original C group re-entered school in September, 1957. Many of these were no longer assigned to the same class section, and a number dropped out or were transferred in the course of the school year. Because of the smaller number of students available for study at the end of the second year, especially in the C group (49 in E as compared with 74 initially, and 34 in C as compared with 72 initially), attempts at more refined comparisons with the measuring instruments available would not be rewarding.

Conclusions

1. The data suggest that the group and individual counseling services given by FEGS to boys and girls in the double period modified English classes helped them to

achieve greater realism and maturity in vocational planning.

a. Their responses to questionnaires showed more grasp of the need for giving thought to choice of career, greater awareness of the factors which enter into career choice, greater independence from parental judgment, greater understanding of the nature of work responsibilities, greater knowledge of occupations and the ways of training for them and entering upon them.

b. Their counselors' ratings showed growth and desirable change.

c. Their own judgments indicated that they had profited by the counseling.

d. In comparison with boys and girls of similar background who did not receive FEGS services, while these also showed some changes in the direction of greater maturity and realism over the year, in substantially every meaningful particular the group served showed greater changes in the desired direction than did the group not served.

2. Through individual testing under conditions of satisfactory rapport, a generally higher level of intelligence was found to characterize the group than had been expected on the basis of group tests of academic aptitude administered in the schools.

3. The counseling services appear to have had the desirable effect of increasing the proportion of boys and girls who engaged in part-time work after school as an aspect of an individualized program of meeting current employment needs and orientation to the world of work.

4. The program seems, therefore, to have been of value to the boys and girls who participated and to have been integrated into the school program without disruption.

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Questionnaire: My Interests and Plans

Here are some questions which will help you to plan wisely for study and for your work when you are no longer in school. Please answer as carefully as you can. Your answers are confidential.

1. The amount of time I spend doing my homework and studying my lessons each day is about . . . . hours.
2. The way I usually spend my time after school is . . . .
   . . . .
3. I plan to stay in school for . . . . more years. The kind of work I expect to do for a living when I am finished with school is . . . .
   . . . .
   I think this will be good for me because . . . .
   . . . .
4. I expect to start working at this job in . . . . years. What I plan to do to get ready for this work is . . . .
5. My parents and relatives have told me that the kind of work I should plan to do is
   . . . .
   They say this because . . . .
   . . . .
   My opinion of their advice is . . . .
   My name is . . . . Today's date is . . . .

G.A.T.B. Norms for Lower High School Grades

ROBERT C. DROEGE

The General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) was originally developed to determine occupational potentialities of persons in, or about to enter, the labor market. Aptitude norms for a large number of specific occupations and groups of occupations have been established on the basis of wide-scale research conducted within the Federal-State Employment Service system. Most of this research has been done on adult groups, and the GATB has proved to be a valuable instrument for measuring vocational aptitudes of adults needing vocational counseling. This includes high school seniors who are tested in large numbers (223,841 in 8,301 schools for the class of 1958) in connection with high school counseling programs conducted by the various State Employment Services in cooperation with high schools throughout the country.

In 1953 Super pointed out the need for using tests with occupational significance in counseling students at the time they enter high school. He said:

> "I am quite impressed with both the technical problems and the practical importance of the administration of tests that have shown occupational significance, such as the GATB, to youngsters when they are at about the ninth grade level. This is the choice point. This is where curricula are chosen. The decision may be changed later, but at least a preliminary decision as to type of curriculum is made and these curricular choices are, after all, pre-occupational, whether they are choices of the academic curriculum which is pre-professional, or the commercial curriculum which is pre-business, or the technical curriculum which is pre-trade. Obviously, it is to the advantage of the student and of the school to have data that help the youngster to choose a curriculum which is oriented toward the type of work and the way of life that he is going to enter or that he may enter eventually" [*15, p. 48*].

Within the last two years there has been an increasing recognition of the need for educational-vocational counseling services for students in the lower high school grades. Educators, government authorities, and manpower specialists [*3–5, 13, 14*] have been actively encouraging plans for increasing such services. It is their opinion that careful counseling early in the high school years can be of great help to students in making tentative selections of vocational goals as a basis for planning their courses of study in high school.

Along with the increasing emphasis on earlier educational-vocational counseling, there has been an increasing demand for making the GATB available to school counselors for use in counseling students in the lower high school grades. To meet this demand, the U. S. Employment Service has developed tentative GATB norms for use in the ninth and tenth grades. The purpose of this article is to (a) summarize the research conducted to develop GATB norms appropriate for use in the ninth and tenth grades and (b) describe further aptitude test research being conducted by the U. S. Employment Service on high school students.

Research Summary

To be of maximum effectiveness in the educational-vocational counseling of students in the lower high school grades, aptitude tests should have the following characteristics: validity for occupational success;

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validity for high school and college success; stability of measurement; and appropriate level of test norms.

Validity for Occupational, College, and High School Success: A most important requirement of any aptitude test battery used in vocational counseling is that it should have demonstrated validity for predicting occupational success. The tests in the battery should measure aptitudes important in a variety of occupations, and there should be good evidence of the validity of the aptitude tests for predicting success in many different occupations. The GATB probably comes closer to meeting this requirement than any other multi-factor test battery [*11, 16*]. Validity data from occupational test development studies are summarized in Section III of the *Guide to the Use of General Aptitude Test Battery* [*18*] and in the "Validity Information Exchange" section of *Personnel Psychology*. It should be noted that this research has been based on samples of individuals tested as *adults*.

Since comprehensive counseling of students in the lower high school grades is directed at educational as well as vocational planning, there should be evidence that the aptitude tests used predict success in courses of study in high school and college. There is considerable evidence that the GATB has a substantial relationship to college success. Results of studies on college groups relating the GATB to success in various academic fields are summarized in Section III of the *Guide to the Use of General Aptitude Test Battery* [*18*]. A few studies have been conducted in which the relationships of the aptitudes of the GATB to high school success were determined. In three of these studies, the students in the sample were tested initially in the ninth grade and retested in the twelfth grade. For each sample, ninth and twelfth grade aptitude scores were correlated with over-all high school success. Then weighted average validities for the combined sample were obtained separately for the ninth and twelfth grade aptitude scores. TABLE 1 shows the weighted average validity coefficients for ninth and twelfth grade aptitude scores and the difference between these validity coefficients for the aptitudes of the GATB.

TABLE 1

Comparison of Weighted Average Validity Coefficients for Ninth and Twelfth Grade GATB Scores
N = 663

Aptitudes of the GATB	*Weighted Average Validity Coefficients* Grade 9 Scores	*Weighted Average Validity Coefficients* Grade 12 Scores	*Difference in Validity Coefficients*
Intelligence	0.53	0.56	−0.03
Verbal Aptitude	0.52	0.58	−0.06†
Numerical Aptitude	0.56	0.55	0.01
Spatial Aptitude	0.17	0.31	−0.14†
Form Perception	0.37	0.43	−0.06*
Clerical Perception	0.56	0.55	0.01
Motor Coordination	0.32	0.33	−0.01
Finger Dexterity	0.26	0.31	−0.05
Manual Dexterity	0.21	0.26	−0.05

* Significant at the 0.05 level.
† Significant at the 0.01 level.
Note: All weighted average validity coefficients are significant at the 0.0001 level.

The aptitudes most highly related to high school success are Intelligence, Verbal Aptitude, Numerical Aptitude, and Clerical Perception. These aptitudes all have validity coefficients in the 0.50's for ninth grade and twelfth grade scores. Statistical tests of significance indicate that the probability of obtaining correlations of these magnitudes by chance is less than one in 10,000. These results show that there is a substantial relationship between certain aptitudes of the GATB and high school grades, and that aptitude scores obtained as early as the ninth grade provide reasonably good predictions of future high school success.

How do the predictive validities of ninth grade scores compare with the concurrent validities of twelfth grade scores on the aptitudes with the highest validities? The data in TABLE 1 show that of these aptitudes only Verbal Aptitude has a significantly higher validity for twelfth grade scores ($r = 0.58$) than for ninth grade scores ($r = 0.52$) made by the same students.

Stability of Measurement: Aptitude tests cannot be used with confidence unless there

TABLE 2

Comparison of GATB Stability Coefficients for a Sample of Students Tested Twice in the Twelfth Grade and Weighted Average Stability Coefficients for Eight Samples of Students Tested in the Ninth and Twelfth Grades

Aptitudes of the GATB	Grade at Initial Testing Grade 12 (N=1159*)	Grade 9 (N=1100)	Difference in Stability Coefficients
Intelligence	0.87	0.76	0.11†
Verbal Aptitude	0.86	0.74	0.12†
Numerical Aptitude	0.84	0.77	0.07†
Spatial Aptitude	0.81	0.76	0.05†
Form Perception	0.73	0.64	0.09†
Clerical Perception	0.75	0.77	−0.02
Motor Coordination	0.81	0.69	0.12†
Finger Dexterity	0.67	0.65	0.02
Manual Dexterity	0.73	0.64	0.09†

* N = 1009 for Finger Dexterity and Manual Dexterity.
† Significant at the 0.01 level.
Note: All stability coefficients are significant at the 0.0001 level.

is evidence that the tests have substantial stability of measurement[1] over a period of time. Studies have shown that the aptitudes of the GATB do have a satisfactory degree of stability for adult groups when the interval between first and second administration of the tests is three months or less [*18*]. But other studies on rates of aptitude maturation [*1, 2, 7, 8*] have shown that there may be differences in the rate of progress of the maturation process for individuals who have not reached full aptitude maturity. A question arises as to whether individual differences in rate of maturation have a serious detrimental effect on stability of aptitude measurement in the lower high school grades. If this were the case, the test scores of younger high school students could not be expected to provide stable indications of occupational and educational potentialities. It would follow that use of aptitude tests for long-range counseling of students in the lower high school grades could not be justified. Evidence of the degree of long-term stability of the aptitudes of the GATB for students initially tested in the ninth grade and retested in the twelfth grade are available from eight studies. Stability data are also available for a sample of students tested with the GATB twice in the twelfth grade with an interval of three months between initial testing and retesting. Table 2 shows a comparison of the stability coefficients for these two groups of students.

For all aptitudes except Clerical Perception and Finger Dexterity, the correlation between initial and retest scores of the twelfth graders is significantly higher than the correlation between initial and retest scores of students tested in the ninth and twelfth grades. The largest difference is 0.12. Part of the difference in results is no doubt due to the fact that the interval between initial testing and retesting was only three months for the twelfth graders but three years for the ninth graders. Assuming that the time interval between testings is a factor, we may tentatively conclude that the stability of scores of ninth graders compares favorably with the stability of scores of individuals who have reached aptitude maturity. A study of the long-range stability of the GATB administered at the adult level is in progress to determine the effect of length of interval between testings on stability coefficients. Additional evidence relating to stability of the GATB at the tenth grade level was obtained in a study by Cook and Wrenn [*6*] who found that there was little difference in factorial composition of the GATB at the tenth and twelfth grades.

Development of Tentative GATB Norms for Ninth and Tenth Graders: As pointed out before, the U. S. Employment Service, in cooperation with various State Employment Services, has developed aptitude norms for specific occupations and groups of occupations through extensive research with the GATB on adult groups. These aptitude norms cannot be used without modification with students in the lower high school grades because of the effects of growth on aptitude scores during the high school years.

[1] The term "stability of measurement" will be used to refer to the *relationship* between initial test scores and retest scores for a specified group of individuals.

There is good evidence that aptitude scores are still increasing during this period from studies on the GATB [*6*] and other tests [*2, 8, 17, 19*]. Since 1948 several GATB maturation studies have been conducted to determine the extent to which scores on the GATB increase during the high school years. Some of these studies utilized a test-retest type of experimental plan which involved testing students in one of the lower high school grades and then retesting them in the twelfth grade. Other studies were done using an independent sample plan in which scores of students tested in the twelfth grade were compared with scores of other students tested in the lower grades who eventually became twelfth graders in the same school. Both designs require making assumptions which may not be entirely warranted, and there is considerable controversy as to which design is "best" [*1, 12, 19*]. The test-retest approach is the most direct and probably the most appropriate when the results can be adjusted for the effects of practice. But sufficient data for estimating and partialing out practice effects on the GATB are not yet available. Therefore, it was decided that development of tentative norms for the ninth and tenth grades should be based on data from studies in which the independent sample design was used.

Data were available for 40 samples of students tested in seven states. Each sample consisted of either boys or girls tested in either the ninth, tenth, or twelfth grades and included only those students who eventually became twelfth graders in the same school. The total number of students in the 40 samples was 5,922. To determine the effects of growth on aptitude scores during the high school years it was necessary to equate aptitude scores of students in ninth and tenth grade samples to aptitude scores of students in comparable twelfth grade samples. Various statistical methods may be used to equate test scores of individuals in different groups. Flanagan [*10*] believes that the equi-percentile method is the most satisfactory primarily because, unlike other methods, it does not make the assumption of similar shapes of the two score distributions and a linear relationship between the two series of scores. Flanagan's discussion is in terms of obtaining comparable scores for different tests or different forms of the same test, but the argument applies equally well (if not better) to the problem of obtaining comparable scores for two groups of students at different stages of the aptitude maturation process.

The equi-percentile method was applied to the data for the 40 samples as follows: For each sample tested in the ninth and tenth grades, the percentile scores of the students were matched with the percentile scores of students in a comparable twelfth grade sample of the same sex and in the same school. This was done separately for each aptitude of the GATB. A graphic analysis of the combined results showed that the increases in aptitude scores were (a) greater between the ninth and twelfth grades than between the tenth and twelfth grades and (b) about the same for boys and girls. The results for boys and girls were combined and tables for converting aptitude scores in the twelfth grade to equivalent aptitude scores in the ninth and tenth grades were prepared. These tables show conversions for each aptitude of the GATB for all scores in the score range 40–160. The ninth and tenth grade equivalents of twelfth grade scores of 80, 100, and 120 are shown in TABLE 3.

The U. S. Employment Service uses a multiple-cutting score approach in developing aptitude norms for specific occupations and groups of occupations [*9*]. These norms are established in terms of combinations of GATB aptitudes and minimum scores found to predict occupational success in studies on samples of adults. The norms can be used without modification in counseling twelfth graders, but the minimum scores are too high for use with students in the lower high school grades. To make the aptitude norms useful for counseling ninth and tenth graders, the adult minimum scores were converted to equivalent ninth and tenth grade minimum scores. This was done by using the tables developed for this purpose in this study. For example, con-

TABLE 3

Ninth and Tenth Grade Equivalents of Twelfth Grade Scores of 80, 100, and 120

Aptitudes of the GATB	12th Grade Score of 80		12th Grade Score of 100		12th Grade Score of 120	
	9th Grade Equivalent Scores	10th Grade Equivalent Scores	9th Grade Equivalent Scores	10th Grade Equivalent Scores	9th Grade Equivalent Scores	10th Grade Equivalent Scores
Intelligence	74	77	92	96	109	112
Verbal Aptitude	76	78	91	94	107	110
Numerical Aptitude	76	77	94	97	112	115
Spatial Aptitude	76	78	94	97	111	117
Form Perception	71	75	92	96	109	115
Clerical Perception	72	73	91	94	106	111
Motor Coordination	70	73	90	94	109	112
Finger Dexterity	71	74	90	95	108	114
Manual Dexterity	70	71	90	92	110	113

sider the Occupational Aptitude Pattern which covers occupations such as Physician and Engineer. The adult norms for this OAP, established on the basis of test research studies on adult groups, consist of Intelligence, Numerical Aptitude, and Spatial Aptitude with minimum scores of 125, 115, and 115, respectively. The tenth grade norms for this OAP include the same three aptitudes with the lower converted minimum scores of 117, 110, and 112, respectively. The ninth grade minimum scores are still lower: 113, 107, and 106, respectively. Adjustments in minimum scores made in this way permit use of available occupational norms in the interpretation of scores of ninth and tenth grade students.

Additional GATB Research on High School Students

To evaluate the adequacy of the tentative GATB norms, a longitudinal experimental design has been developed and is being used in the collection of data for a study in which 19 State Employment Services are participating. The design involves testing students in the ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades and retesting the same students after they reach the twelfth grade to determine the maturation effects in the intervening periods. There was also provision for testing a control group of students in the twelfth grade at the time students in the lower grades were tested initially. The 19 state agencies tested a total of 36,207 students in large, medium, and small schools for the study between February 1 and April 30, 1958. Data collection for this study will continue until the ninth grade students are retested in the twelfth grade in 1961. A separate practice effect study is also in progress. The purpose of this study is to determine the effects of practice on GATB scores of fully matured individuals when the interval between initial testing and retesting is one, two, and three years, respectively. These intervals are the same as those between initial testing and retesting of eleventh, tenth, and ninth graders in the longitudinal maturation study. The results of this study will be used to adjust the results of the maturation study for the effects of practice.

Eighteen of the state agencies participating in the longitudinal maturation study are also participating in a follow-up study to determine the relationship between GATB scores and academic success in high school. The sample consists of students tested for the longitudinal maturation study. Data collection for this study will continue until the close of the 1960–1961 school year.

A follow-up study on occupational and college performance using individuals retested for the longitudinal maturation study has also been initiated. Measures of occupational and college success will be obtained for these individuals two years, and again

seven years, after they graduate from high school. The results of this study will provide information on the validity of the aptitudes of the GATB for predicting occupational and college success of students tested in the lower high school grades.

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COMMENTS

THE PAST DECADE has seen tremendous developments in the field of aptitude measurement. The combination of (1) refined measuring devices, (2) large-scale testing programs in selection, placement, and counseling, and (3) interest in the early identification and development of the talented has resulted in more and better information concerning the structure and growth of human abilities and the characteristics of our human resources pool.

Since its founding in 1955, the National Merit Scholarship Corporation has tested over 1,500,000 students. During the spring of 1960, Project Talent will test over 500,000 high school students in a national inventory of aptitudes and abilities. The present article reports that nearly a quarter million high school students of the 1958 class were administered the GATB. To these mass testing programs must be added the uncounted millions of aptitude, interest, and achievement tests given as part of local or individual programs.

Much of this quantitative increase in testing has been due to the use of tests as tools in service programs. In addition, however, has been the over-all research goal to determine how soon success and satisfaction in occupational activities can be predicted. This research goal has led to the standardization of occupationally relevant tests on younger age groups and to study of the long-term predictive value of tests.

The study described in the above article is an excellent example of these trends. It

presents evidence of the potential usefulness of the GATB as a measuring and predictive device at the ninth and tenth grade levels. The rationale, simply stated, goes something like this: the GATB aptitudes are sufficiently stable at grade nine to warrant the development of ninth grade Equivalent Scores which can then be used to enter into the Occupational Aptitude Patterns already developed on adult occupational groups. Through this procedure ninth grade test performance can be interpreted in terms of later occupational performance.

As basic research on the maturation, stability, and predictive value of occupationally relevant aptitudes, this GATB study and the additional research on high school students now in progress will add considerably to our scientific knowledge. The Testing Division of the USES has provided normative and developmental data which, if used wisely, will make possible better counseling of young people.

There is a growing concern, however, among professional vocational counselors, over the possible *misuse* of information of this type. Their concern grows out of several factors: (1) the uncritical use of and overdependence upon test scores by inadequately trained counselors in a variety of settings; (2) the increasing social pressure to decide early upon a specific occupational goal; (3) the still inadequate evidence on the maturation rates and predictive value of aptitudes in the individual case.

They fear that vocational counseling will succumb to the public stereotype represented by the not unusual request, "I would like the aptitude test to find out what I should do." They fear that a legitimate attention to the early identification of talent will become an unwise attempt to channel young people too narrowly and too soon. They realize the danger of applying group findings to the unique individual without taking into account the various sources of error in the predictions and without considering the total pattern of factors which are relevant in the individual case.

The increasing quantity and validity of information concerning aptitudes in relation to occupational success must, therefore, be accompanied by provision for better trained users of the information and by a clearer recognition of the objectives of vocational counseling with the earlier age groups.

The goal of vocational guidance at the junior high level is the broadening of occupational horizons rather than the premature narrowing of choices. It should maximize the individual's potentialities rather than merely screen him in relation to a few requirements. It should provide a broad career orientation which will facilitate the making of the specific curricular choices required by our educational system but it should not require specific occupational decisions *per se*. Vocational maturity in ninth graders is a function of the recognition of the possibility of vocational goals and the desirability of planning for them but it does not require having consistent or stable vocational preferences *per se*.

Let us not, therefore, let our appropriate enthusiasm for increased knowledge about the development of human capacities spill over into inappropriate attempts to turn testing for self-understanding into pigeonholing or career orientation into job channeling.—Albert S. Thompson, *Professor, Department of Psychological Foundations and Services, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.*

The Impact of N.D.E.A. Upon Counselor Preparation

WILLIS E. DUGAN

A SUBSTANTIAL impact upon graduate programs for the preparation of school counselors has been made by counseling institutes provided under Title V-B of the National Defense Education Act. Fifty such institutes were conducted in the summer of 1959 and enrolled more than 2,000 counselors and teachers preparing for counseling in secondary schools. It is estimated that as many as 12 to 15 thousand counselors will be reached by similar institutes subsidized by the NDEA in a five-year period. This total is approximately equal to the existing number of counselors presently employed in the nation's secondary schools. Thus, the impact in terms of numbers of counselors to be reached by this program is indeed significant.

A Critical Overview of Status

Twenty years ago few colleges and universities were interested in and qualified to prepare counselors and psychological workers for the public schools. Only a small proportion of the nation's schools had counselors or school psychologists. In the past decade, a remarkable growth has occurred, perhaps triple or quadruple, both in the number of programs for the preparation of counselors and in the number of such personnel designated as counselors in the schools.

Desirable as this growth has been, it has proved largely to be a quantitative growth —an acceleration in numbers of programs and personnel. In the decade ahead, a significant obligation is clear—not only to meet the continuing pressure for more graduate programs and more counseling personnel, but also, and more importantly, a demanding responsibility for improvement in quality.

Quality not quantity is the really important variable. The number of counselors has grown at a faster rate than quality. Quality has increased in individual cases, but has not kept pace with the demand for an increasing supply of professionally skillful school counselors to meet the needs of rapidly accelerating secondary school enrollments.

Counselors, by and large, in the public secondary schools, rise from the ranks of teaching. As a strategy for increasing the number of such personnel and for the acceptance by staff of counseling work, this avenue of development has proved successful. It must be noted, however, that a significant gap exists in the professional preparation of such counselors who rise from the ranks of teaching. Basically, this gap is in the foundations of psychological preparation which undergirds the real understanding of human behavior.

An examination of the counselor certification requirements of 32 states which have specified standards for counselors reveals some significant weaknesses. Among the generally accepted eight areas of minimal preparation, only four receive emphasis in the established counselor certification requirements. These four areas are: (1) philosophy and principles of guidance; (2) educational and occupational information; (3) appraisal techniques; and (4) introduction to counseling. These four emphasized

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areas relate primarily to the "how" rather than to the "why" of the counseling relationship. The remaining four recognized areas of preparation are not consistently emphasized in counselor certification standards; namely, (1) personality theory and development; (2) statistics and research methodology; (3) group procedures in guidance; and (4) supervised counseling experience. In short, only half of the areas of recommended minimal standards are given consistent emphasis in state certification of counselors.

A second analysis of quality in counselor preparation is derived from an examination of the graduate course offerings in 1956–1957 of more than 300 colleges and universities which reported programs in counselor education. One-third or less of these institutions specify clearly required courses for counselors in personality theory and development, statistics and research. Less than half of the programs which list counselor training staff offering graduate level degrees in counseling make provision for supervised counseling practicum. Furthermore, few counselor preparing institutions are satisfied with criteria and methods used for selective admission and continuing review of candidates for degrees in counseling.

This brief overview of present status tends to reveal that counselor preparation programs now in existence have at least three major areas of weakness: (a) foundations in psychology; (b) effective selection procedures; and (c) counseling practicum under professional supervision. Therefore, any review of the role and influence of the newly inaugurated NDEA program for counselor preparation must recognize that significant weaknesses are already present in established graduate programs. Such weaknesses cannot be laid at the door of any newly established national supporting program. In fact, it is quite clear from the short experience of this first year of the federal program that much may be accomplished by the NDEA sponsored counseling institutes to correct some of the obvious and recognized weaknesses.

As a member of APA Division 17 and as a director of one of the 50 counseling institutes conducted in the summer of 1959, it appears to me most appropriate at this point to (a) identify some of the positive points of influence deriving from the NDEA program, and (b) delineate some of the concerns related to the current acceleration of subsidized counselor preparation programs.

Positive Influences of NDEA Institutes

1. *Strong supportive influence of national leadership.*

The attentiveness and concern of the U. S. Office of Education for improvement in school counseling services has alerted not only the public and administrators of public schools, but also institutions of higher education to their responsible obligations in meeting a need for effective guidance and counseling services in the schools. The leadership afforded by the USOE staff has been cooperative and strong in a professional sense.

2. *Increased cooperative interaction of related academic disciplines in development and operation of counselor preparation programs.*

The counseling institutes conducted thus far have not only accelerated the sharing of responsibility for counselor education among college departments of education, child development, and psychology, but also give evidence of helpful involvement of a variety of other academic disciplines.

Data derived from the staff lists provided by 48 of the 50 institutes this past summer reveal, however, a need for more involvement of college staff members in psychology. Such participation is needed in institute planning as well as in the instructional and laboratory activities of institutes which are authorized.

While a full statistical analysis of institute staff is not possible at this time, the data received reveal some interesting generalizations:

a. Approximately 48 per cent of the 766 reported staff members, full, part-time, and consultative, were identified with fields of education, educational administration, and counselor-training. (This does not include 118 staff members listed in educational psychology.)

b. Forty-four per cent represented staff members from various fields of psychology (118 educational psychologists, 48 counseling psychologists, 10 clinical psychologists, and 11 child or school psychologists).

c. Five per cent of the staff represented strictly academic fields such as sociology, economics, anthropology, mathematics, science areas, etc.

d. Three per cent represented specialized fields such as medicine, psychiatry, speech, pathology, industrial personnel, etc.

It is of interest to note that 16 of the 48 institutes reporting accounted for two-thirds of the staff identified as psychologists, and these same 16 institutes accounted for all of the 48 counseling psychologists listed.

Thus, while a substantial proportion of all institute staff members were psychologists, the majority participated in a relatively small proportion of the institutes.[1]

3. *Provision of rich opportunities for experimentation and development of new approaches to counselor preparation.*

Unquestionably, existing programs of counselor-preparation need "beefing up." A stronger emphasis upon foundation courses in psychology and child development are long overdue. More clearly planned laboratory and practicum activities are needed. Often budget limitations have stood in the way of such development. The NDEA subsidy and professional staff leadership offer much support to improvement and unique experimentation in counselor preparation. It is observed that institute plans typically include the much needed integrative seminars, laboratory activities, and related field practice. These developments will have a most salutary influence upon graduate programs in the counseling field.

4. *Development of plans for professionally supervised counseling experience.*

NDEA institutes have offered support and encouragement and improved practicum activities. This has represented perhaps the greatest single weakness in existing counselor preparation programs. Supervised practicum is costly in time, facilities, and ratio of staff to students. Approved institutes have had the opportunity of demonstrating the role and value of supervised practicum through the much needed subsidization of this feature by NDEA.

5. *Increasing attentiveness to selective admission and continuing review of candidates for counselor preparation.*

Extensive selection appraisal and review have been encouraged by the NDEA institute program. Overwhelming numbers of applicants for enrollment have forced institutions to examine their selection methods and to establish more effective screening procedures. The institute program offers a unique opportunity for experimental testing and evaluative follow-up of candidates enrolled in counselor preparation.

Some Points of Concern

While the general reaction of this observer of the NDEA counseling institutes program is favorable, it is possible to forsee some points of concern regarding the impact of this nationally subsidized program.

1. *Emphasis extended by the national level program of counseling institutes might easily give the impression that counselor preparation requires only a short-term, "crash-type" training program.*

Professional organizations such as APA, APGA, and local counseling groups are well aware of the need for higher standards in counselor preparation. Support for this concern is needed at the national level by subsidizing agencies to help balance the demand for quantity of counselors with an equal concern about the *quality* of their preparation. Increasing support nationally is needed for a minimum of a two-year program of professional preparation.

2. *NDEA institutes must not be permitted to encroach upon established, regular programs of counselor preparation.*

With limited professional staff and facilities in most institutions of higher education for the established programs of counselor preparation, it is possible that subsidized institutes may divert these limited resources

[1] Time did not permit a check of listed staff against the current APA Directory. It is likely that more counseling psychologists and Division 17 members might be identified among the large proportion of staff listed generally in the field of education.

away from regular, non-subsidized students. Inroads upon the time of regular staff members and imbalance in the use of existing facilities must be avoided.

3. *Critical attention must be given by the USOE in the approval of subsidized institutes to provisions for adequate professional staffing and supporting facilities.*

Counselor preparation, even in short-term institutes, requires more than technique courses offered by one or two methods instructors. A critical shortage of qualified faculty exists for staffing both regular, on-going programs and the new, subsidized institutes. A national clearing center or registry of additional qualified and available staff for counselor preparation appears to be needed.

4. *Lack of adequate involvement and participation of basic psychology staff and counseling psychologists could well represent one of the marked short-comings of subsidized counseling institutes.*

Counselor preparation programs are located largely in colleges or departments of education. A desperate need exists for qualified psychology staff to seek involvement and participation, not only in the planning stages but also in the actual teaching and operation of the institutes. Psychologists have an obligation to take cooperative steps in demonstrating interest and availability for such participation with their colleagues who are directly involved in these programs at the local level.

5. *Evaluation of the total effect of the institutes in attaining the objectives of increasing the number and quality of counselors represents an essential obligation.*

Both the sponsoring university or college and the U. S. Office of Education must include provisions for institute evaluation in their programs. Some provisions have been made for review and reporting, but plans for critical evaluation need to be extended.

In short, counselor education has prospects for tremendous strengthening through the current NDEA program of subsidizing carefully planned and selected counseling institutes. The future of counselor education, to this observer, looks exceedingly promising on the basis of this initial year's experience with cooperative national leadership and NDEA support.

THE HOME STUDY REVIEW—NEW QUARTERLY

The first issue of a new quarterly, professional journal, *The Home Study Review,* was published this spring by the National Home Study Council, Washington, D. C. Its purpose is to present original articles, research studies, reprints, news stories, book reviews, and commentaries related to correspondence education thus providing a means of exchanging information among those engaged in the home study field. Edited by Robert Allen, Executive Director of the National Home Study Council, the quarterly will be published in the spring, summer, fall, and winter for public and private school and university educators, government and industry officials interested in the field of correspondence study. Editorial and subscription correspondence should be directed to the National Home Study Council, 1420 New York Avenue, N. W., Washington 5, D. C.

Opportunities and Responsibilities In Test Development and Test Use

ALEXANDER G. WESMAN

THE POTENTIAL impact of the National Defense Education Act on the field of evaluation and measurement would be difficult to overestimate. Thousands upon thousands of students have been measured, as a result of this program, in abilities in which they would not otherwise have been measured. Hundreds of school systems have elaborated their testing and guidance procedures in ways which they would not otherwise have seen as possible. Statewide testing programs have arisen where they did not previously exist. The time, effort, and money devoted to testing activities have been enormously expanded, and are likely to be even further expanded in the future. NDEA funds represent a truly major investment in American education. Will this investment fully realize its objectives? Yes, if all those to whom the program offers opportunities accept the accompanying responsibilities. No, if responsibilities go unrecognized. No, if those who direct the utilization of the funds and those who benefit financially from the increased usage of tests and measurements fail to fulfill responsibilities however evident.

Other Beneficiaries

Who is afforded opportunities by the passage of the National Defense Education Act? Primarily, of course, it is the student who is intended as the ultimate, if not direct, beneficiary of the investment; but it is not only the student who will derive direct benefits. There are profits to be made by the publishers of the tests which find favor; there are royalties earned by the authors of the tests. There are budgets in state departments of education, suddenly provided with monies over the expenditure of which the department has considerable discretion, and budgets in local school systems unexpectedly augmented with funds which derive from federal rather than local taxes. For the people who publish the tests, author the tests, or direct testing and counseling activities at the state or local level, the newly available money provides unusual opportunities—opportunities which if seen in narrow perspective can mean immediate financial profit to authors and publishers, and subsidization of pet projects to directors of testing programs, but disappointingly little to the student and the fields of education and measurement; if seen in broader perspective, the financial gains can still be ample, the contributions to budgets can help improve established programs or bring new programs into being, while the primary goals of NDEA and their highly desirable concomitants are being achieved.

Publishers and authors of tests can accept the increments in profits and royalties as simply the proper reward of the ingenuity, skill, artistry, and effort that went into the creation of the instruments, with no feeling of further obligation. It might be suggested that enlightened self-interest

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would indicate a different viewpoint. The additional profits might well be re-invested in the improvement of the very instruments whose sale yields those profits, in the improvement of other instruments which have not been similarly favored, in the development of new instruments, or in the development of devices and materials which will facilitate the mechanics of the testing process or the interpretation and communcation of test results.

Perfection Not Yet Upon Us

Even though a test, or a set of tests, has been widely adopted for use in testing programs, it is likely to be susceptible to improvement. There are opportunities for expanding the sizes of normative samples, of obtaining more representative norms, of developing meaningful local norms. There will be new samples on which validity may be studied and new criteria against which to study validity—assuming, of course, that schools will cooperate in such studies. Manuals might well be revised to incorporate the extensive new data and increase the usefulness of the tests.

While we are engaged in revising manuals, publishers and authors ought to consider some of the new conditions under which test results will be used. Particularly, it is important to recognize that the task of administering the tests, and of interpreting the test results, is frequently falling on unprepared shoulders. This is inevitable, perhaps, when the use of tests is so suddenly and so extensively broadened. It is to be hoped, naturally, that in-service training courses and similar methods will be employed to improve the competence of those who have not heretofore been trained in test administration and interpretation. But such training takes time—and, meanwhile, tests are being given and test results are being interpreted. It would seem desirable, therefore, for test manuals to take into account the lack of experience, and of sophistication, of teachers and counselors suddenly faced with new responsibility. Directions for administration will need to be paragons of clarity, with details fully spelled out. The importance of adhering strictly to prescribed time limits must be emphasized. No assumptions can be safely made that teachers will understand the conditions necessary to standardized test administration unless the teachers are explicity instructed—and even then we can only hope that each teacher has been so motivated as to care whether or not the tests are properly given. This may be an alarmist view, but experience indicates that an alarmist view may be necessary to help forestall the presence on pupil record cards of meaningless scores.

We need to view with at least equal alarm the interpretation which newly drafted counselors and teacher-counselors will make of test scores. For years, measurement authorities and counseling psychologists have lamented the numerous situations in which tests have been given and results then permitted to accumulate dust in untouched files. We may soon be faced with the unpleasant dilemma of choosing between the waste of uninterpreted scores and the dangers of misinterpretation of those scores. The primary responsibility for instructing counselors and teachers in the meaning of test results does not fall on the publisher or author; the manual can, however, play a helpful or harmful role. For example, we know that even some experienced counselors are not thoroughly at home with correlation coefficients; the increased use of expectancy tables can serve to illuminate the meaning of reported coefficients and to stress the probability nature of predictions derived from correlation studies. Since differences between scores are so central to interpretation of test data in counseling and guidance, devices should be employed which will guide interpreters to understanding when found differences have no real significance.

NDEA should provide added stimulation to authors and publishers to develop specialized instruments for specific areas—for example, one such obvious area would be that of aptitude for the learning of foreign languages. Coincident with this opportunity come responsibilities:

1. To provide evidence that the new instruments will predict better than scholas-

tic aptitude tests, or measures of competence in English, or other generally predictive tests;

2. To avoid making claims for new tests until empirical data will support those claims.

As indicated above, the activities of authors and publishers will affect, and be affected by, programs arising from the NDEA. Of far greater influence, however, will be the role played by the measurement specialists in the individual state departments of education and of the consultants whose services they employ. In their hands lies the basic responsibility for the quality of programs in their states. They may choose a highly permissive approach, and let local communities within the state make the significant decisions—but even this choice must represent a judgment that such a plan is the most effective one for that state; otherwise, it is simply a failure properly to discharge the responsibility explicitly assigned by the NDEA.

Optimum Use of Funds

The first deadline for utilization of NDEA funds found many state education departments sorely pressed for time; the many weeks lost while awaiting clarification of the meaning of the Act and of what would constitute approvable programs made hurried action on the part of the states reasonable, if not inevitable. Perhaps the haste served to cause some premature activities, or perhaps it merely served to highlight them. In any event, plans for future programs warrant more mature consideration for the utilization of NDEA funds.

There are instances in which the funds have been used directly or indirectly for the construction of tests by the state education department. If these tests measure knowledge or skills which are not already measured by available standardized tests, this kind of activity may be respected. If, on the other hand, the department's tests merely duplicate what is equally well assessed by well-established scholastic aptitude or achievement tests, the basic purposes of NDEA have been violated. The Act was passed to develop the resources and skills of the nation's students, not to help state officials build empires.

As one looks at the programs adopted by some local communities, and even by some states which have statewide testing programs, one gets the feeling that tests are being selected on the basis of price rather than quality. The assumption appears to be that tests put out by the major publishers are about equally good and all are good enough. The tests are not equally good or equally useful; they differ in orientation, in content, in reliability, in validity, and in appropriateness of norms.

Differences in orientation are perhaps most obvious among achievement tests, where curricular emphases vary widely and where dissimilar subject matter or skills may be encompassed in competing instruments. Important differences also exist among scholastic aptitude tests. One such test may include a numerical reasoning section, another may offer a non-language subtest. A third test may contain verbal, numerical, and abstract subtests, but with all three of these abilities measured by materials differing in kind from the types used in the first two tests. There are one-score cycle-omnibus tests and there are differential aptitude test batteries. And if anyone is unaware that there are very considerable differences between types and within types of scholastic aptitude measures, he need only refer to Buros' *Mental Measurements Year Books,* to reviews in the professional journals, or to the manuals accompanying the tests. Tests should be bought on the basis of quality, relevance, and usefulness; the bargain-basement approach has no proper place in professional measurement.

The Need For Standards

The decision as to whether or not there should be a statewide testing program is properly one which each individual state should make for itself. Each state must make the judgment that students will best be served by a coördinated, uniform program across the state, or by leaving to local communities a larger or smaller share of discretion as to how NDEA funds are to be

used. If a state chooses to let individual school systems fashion their own programs, the state is still not justified in permitting the adoption of just any kind of program the local community might propose. The state is responsible for the effective use of the funds. Unless it can be sure that every community is genuinely able to exercise good judgment in developing a local program, the state cannot in good conscience surrender complete control to the community. Some devices must be adopted to enable the state to exercise such supervision as is necessary in individual instances.

These devices may range from a non-directive approach reined by veto power over specific provisions, to stating a limited number of satisfactory alternatives from which communities may choose. As applied to test selection, the former approach would be represented by a scheme under which the individual school system would report what tests it proposed to use at each grade level, and the state would veto the use of inappropriate or otherwise unsatisfactory instruments. The latter approach might be one in which the state carefully reviewed the available instruments and specified a restricted list of tests from which communities might select. Whatever the mechanics of control may be, control must be exercised—maturely, professionally, responsibly. The use of any instrument by a community must be such that professional people in the state education department can defend it to their professional peers. The state may delegate to the local school systems the choice of instruments—it cannot delegate the obligation to assure the effective use of the NDEA funds.

Of course, test selection is but one of the activities in which the state has important NDEA responsibilities. The test results will be interpreted; the interpretations will contribute, in many instances, to important decisions by students. Even before NDEA, there were not enough school personnel available with adequate understanding of the meanings of test scores. The rapid expansion in test programs now taking place aggravates the deficiency. In allocating money to individual communities, the state might well consider whether greater good may result from using significant sums for development of competent interpreters, via in-service training courses and the like, than from prodigal underwriting of test administration where test interpretation is likely to be naive or misguided. Wisdom in the utilization of fewer bits of well-understood information may pay greater dividends than unsophisticated treatment of ill-digested masses of test scores.

One final admonition. For many years, whenever the topic of federal aid to education arose, many of us voiced the fear that federal aid would mean federal domination of education. The passage of the National Defense Education Act demonstrates unequivocally that it need not be so. The latitude provided to the states is so great as to render any fear of the bug-a-boo of federal control in this instance groundless. State education authorities have been given the opportunity so to govern the allocation of funds as to make for a maximum contribution to the development of our future citizen, the student. It is up to these authorities and to the psychologists and educators who also benefit from this Act to make the most of the opportunity—to discharge the concomitant responsibilities fully and conscientiously—to justify federal aid without federal control by demonstrating that it is effective, as well as philosophically desirable—in short, to achieve the purposes which brought into being this National Defense Education Act.

AREAS OF PREPARATION FOR SCHOOL GUIDANCE WORKERS

PAUL C. POLMANTIER and LYLE D. SCHMIDT

THE PASSAGE and implementation of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 are considered likely to become very significant in the history of the guidance movement. Colleges and universities, especially state universities, are being called upon to renew and to expand their efforts to provide programs of counselor preparation that will increase the competencies of present school counselors and lead to the induction of many additional qualified persons into the field. In 1957 there appeared two publications that have a bearing on the issue. Brewster [*2*] compiled certification requirements in the various states, while Ross [*3*] brought together lists of courses that were to be offered in the colleges and universities throughout the nation for the period June, 1957, to June, 1958. These publications made possible a quick look at the problems of the preparation and certification of school counselors. Recently a committee of APGA [*1*] issued a report concerning recommended minimum standards for counselor preparation together with a list of references pertaining to reports of previous, organized efforts in that direction.

After study of the three publications mentioned, the writers wondered just what the state universities (since the state universities cover the nation) were offering in the way of courses for the preparation of school guidance workers. Also they desired to see the data in some summarized fashion. The present study does that. Utilizing the publication by Ross [*3*], data available in that publication were tabulated for the 54 state universities listed, and the data were subsumed under the 13 course areas of preparation shown in TABLE 1. The categorized areas were derived from course titles and areas listed in Brewster [*2*] and previous listings in the U. S. Office of Education bulletins pertaining to courses offered in colleges and universities during specific periods of time.

TABLE 1 shows the extent to which the state universities have reported offering at least one course in each of the specified areas of preparation. The areas are listed in rank order. One notes that only seven of the 13 areas are covered by more than half of the universities. The position of Supervised Practice may be an indication that the efforts of counselor trainers to have work provided in that area are bringing results. Other interpretations of the table are left to the reader.

TABLE 2 shows the extent to which the universities' total course offerings cover the areas. No attempt is made to show what a particular state university offers. The reader is referred to the original source for that information. It can be seen that the average number of areas covered is less than eight of the 13, and that none of the universities had courses available in all 13 areas.

It can be inferred from the data in this study that there may be a real need for careful appraisal by professional personnel in each state university and in each state

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TABLE 1

Extent to which Fifty-four State Universities Offered at Least One Course in the Specified Areas of Preparation for School Guidance Workers

Name of Course Area	*Number of Universities*	*Per cent of Universities*
Basic Course in Guidance	54	100.0
Methods & Techniques of Counseling	50	92.6
Occupational & Educational Information	47	87.0
Supervised Practice, and/or Internship in Counseling and/or Guidance	39	72.2
Tests and Measurement	36	66.7
Understanding the Individual (The Individual Inventory, Analysis of the Individual, etc.)	34	63.0
Organization & Administration of Guidance	32	59.3
Seminar, Special Problems in Guidance	26	48.2
Miscellaneous Guidance Courses	26	48.2
Mental Hygiene, Personality & Adjustment	23	42.6
Group Procedures in Guidance	21	38.9
Statistics	17	31.5
Elementary School Guidance	10	18.5

department of education of the extent to which their state university provides a well-rounded program of counselor preparation for school guidance workers. It must be recognized that the present study does not give data for colleges or for private universities. Those institutions are also important in the nation-wide efforts to prepare school guidance workers. It is hoped that a careful examination of the individual programs in those institutions will also be made by professional persons concerned.

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TABLE 2

Distribution of Fifty-four State Universities According to the Number of Specified Areas of Preparation Offered

Total Number of Course Areas Offered	*Number of Universities*	*Per cent of Universities*
Thirteen	0	0.0
Twelve	2	3.7
Eleven	4	7.4
Ten	4	7.4
Nine	10	18.5
Eight	5	9.3
Seven	14	25.9
Six	7	13.0
Five	6	11.1
Four	1	1.85
Three	1	1.85
Two	0	0.0
One	0	0.0
TOTALS	54	100.0
Mean Number of Areas		7.69
Standard Deviation		2.04

Job Satisfaction Researches of 1959

H. ALAN ROBINSON and *RALPH P. CONNORS*

This is the eighteenth in a series. It covers reports published in 1959, plus earlier reports which have just come to the attention of the writers. Earlier summaries will be found in Job Satisfaction *by Robert Hoppock (Harper & Bros., 1935) and in the following issues of* Occupations: *April, 1938; October, 1940; February, 1943; April, 1945; April, 1948; December, 1948; December, 1949; October, 1950; May, 1951; May, 1952. The most recent summaries will be found in the following issues of the* Personnel and Guidance Journal: *September, 1953; September, 1954; May, 1955; May, 1956; September, 1957; September, 1958; May, 1959. Readers are invited to notify the authors of researches appropriate for review in future articles.—Ed.*

THE CASUAL READER who prefers not to review all of the evidence might like to know that:

Irish industrial workers indicated higher job satisfaction than their non-Irish co-workers [*26*].

Teachers appear to be more interested in public recognition than in recognition from other professionals [*19*]; psychologists employed by state institutions, on the other hand, seem "relatively unconcerned" with public recognition and more concerned with recognition by other professionals [*8*].

There seems to be little relationship between management rewards (pay increases, increased job status, et cetera) and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction appears to increase most when individuals are rewarded by their own work groups [*26*].

"Though it is a matter of dispute whether high morale and job satisfaction are actually conducive to high productivity . . ." there are indications that ". . . a better incentive system could materially assist in improving the performance of research scientists" [*16*].

Too much specialization has an adverse effect upon productivity and employee satisfaction [*4*].

"The teacher's work satisfaction is decreased to the extent that his aspirations exceed his own expected degree of recognition" [*19*].

". . . Satisfaction is maximized when a person's objectively determined characteristics, his . . . perception of self, and his . . . conception of the kind of person he would like to be in fulfilling environmental demands are all congruent, and furthermore are appropriate to the actual environmental situation and to the situation as he perceives it . . ." [*2*].

Topics Investigated

Results of the investigations reported in this article and listed in the bibliography suggest the presence or absence of relationship between job satisfaction and the following topics: acceptance of occupational role [*2, 3*]; accomplishment [*13*]; adjustment [*12*]; advancement [*3, 5, 7, 9, 10, 16, 17, 20*]; age [*2, 5, 8, 18, 20, 22, 26*]; aspirations [*5, 8, 9*]; attitudes [*1, 20, 22*]; automation [*13*]; autonomy [*24*]; challenge [*16*]; citizenship [*14*]; colleagues [*3, 7, 9, 17, 18, 21, 26*]; communication [*7, 10, 21, 24, 25*]; company [*26*]; decision-making [*4, 9, 16*]; earnings [*3, 5–9, 12–14, 16–18, 21, 25, 26*]; education [*5, 8, 26*]; employee benefits [*11*]; environment [*14, 26*]; ethnicity [*26*]; expectations [*2, 3, 7, 8, 26*]; freedom [*8*]; frustration [*7, 23*]; grievances [*9*]; guidance [*5*]; hours of work [*8*]; human relations [*10, 12*]; incentives [*12, 16*]; intellec-

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tual stimulation [*8*]; interests [*7, 22*]; interviews [*20*]; intrinsic job factors [*12, 13, 15, 22, 26*]; job enjoyment [*7, 16*]; job enlargement [*4, 11, 12, 21*]; length of service [*5, 21*]; living quarters [*3*]; management [*10, 16, 17, 20, 21, 26*]; marital status [*5*]; mechanization [*13, 15, 23*]; mental health [*12, 20*]; monotony [*15, 20, 23*]; morale [*3, 6, 8, 12, 13*]; motivation [*3, 6, 8, 12, 13*]; number of dependents [*5*]; over-all satisfaction [*2, 20*]; personality [*20*]; placement procedures [*20*]; pride [*7, 11, 13*]; productivity [*4, 13, 16, 22, 26*]; psychological needs [*7, 20, 25*]; recognition [*6, 8, 9, 12, 18, 25*]; responsibility [*12, 16*]; rewards [*26*]; security [*3, 8, 9, 12, 18, 25*]; self acceptance [*2*]; self concept [*2, 7, 12*]; self employment [*5*]; seniority [*26*]; sex [*2, 26*]; significance of work [*9*]; skill [*15, 18, 25*]; status [*5, 8, 12, 13, 15, 16, 18, 19, 24, 26*]; success [*14, 22*]; supervision [*3, 9, 11, 12, 17, 21, 26*]; training [*5*]; turnover [*11, 20*]; type of work [*1–3, 5, 8, 9, 11, 16–18, 20, 24, 26*]; unemployment [*18*]; union [*26*]; variety [*11*]; work group *12, 20, 26*]; working conditions [*3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 17, 21, 26*]; work load [*6*]; and work situation [*8*].

Per Cent Dissatisfied

In the five studies which dealt statistically with the percentage of workers judged to be dissatisfied with their jobs, 9 percentages were reported, ranging from 10 to 62 per cent, with a median of 23 per cent dissatisfied. These studies, added to the others reported in the past 25 years, yield 415 percentages ranging from 1 to 92 per cent, with a median of 13 per cent dissatisfied. The median has fluctuated between 12 and 13 per cent dissatisfied for the past seven years.

The 415 percentages referred to above represent percentages of dissatisfaction reported in the United States and other countries (primarily the Netherlands, Germany, Great Britain and dominions). When the percentages of dissatisfaction in the United States alone, reported over the past 25 years, are considered separately, the median is 12 percent dissatisfied. When the percentages of dissatisfaction in countries *other* than the United States are considered separately, the cumulative median of dissatisfaction is 29 per cent.

Current Emphasis

The majority of the studies and discussions reviewed in preparing this article appeared to be most deeply concerned with factors not easily measured by surveys or questionnaires. Much attention was directed toward aspirations, expectations, and status as conceived by oneself and others. The influence of the work group upon the prestige of the worker seemed to be a major factor relating positively to job satisfaction.

A number of the studies considered workers' motivations and goals in relationship to job satisfaction. Strong [22] indicated that there has been more progress, at this point, ". . . in measuring capacities than in ascertaining men's goals. The greater the chance of attaining goals, probably, the greater the probable satisfaction."

The reader will find that a number of the books or periodicals listed in the bibliography are not summarized or referred to in this article. Because of space limitations, the authors have tried to abstract parts of articles or books, which, in their opinion, present findings or concepts of most interest to the majority of the readers.

Satisfaction and the Professions

Jacobson, Rettig, and Pasamanick [*8*], reporting on part of a larger project, indicated that significant relationships appeared between status and job satisfaction of state institution and clinic psychologists when expected status was compared with aspired status. Clinic psychologists seemed to have generally higher status and job satisfaction than state institution psychologists. In comparing the job satisfaction of both groups of psychologists to psychiatrists, social workers, teachers, and nurses, the psychologists and nurses reported the lowest levels of job satisfaction.

State institution psychologists indicated a significant relationship between job satisfaction and pay, status or prestige, and free-

dom in one's work. Clinical psychologists showed a significant relationship only between job satisfaction and security as well as status or prestige. Both groups of psychologists rated "intellectual stimulation" as *the* factor most highly related to job satisfaction.

Pickens and Tayback [*17*] developed four questions to measure overall satisfaction of staff nurses in the Baltimore City Health Department. Results from 139 questionnaires led the authors to conclude that there is strength in nursing due to the high overall level of satisfaction. (This high job satisfaction is contrary to results reported above. In studies about nurses and job satisfaction, however, there have been extremely contradictory reports throughout the years.) Other implications of the study were that relationships with co-workers are vital to job satisfaction, that the supervisor's effectiveness influenced job satisfaction, and that better communication can definitely improve job satisfaction.

Eckert [6] found that college teachers who had begun their careers in the lower schools wanted to continue on the college level. The main reasons for existing job satisfaction stemmed from relationships with fellow workers and better-motivated students. In the relatively few instances where job dissatisfaction was noted, dissatisfactions were associated with working conditions, meager recognition, low salary, and work load. Not a single person who switched to college teaching would have done differently if given the chance.

Brophy [*2*] administered questionnaires ". . . designed to measure general satisfaction, vocational satisfaction, self-concept, ideal self, perceived imposed life rôle, perceived imposed occupational rôle, ideal occupational rôle, self-acceptance, and occupational rôle acceptance . . ." to 81 female nurses. A significant correlation was found between general and job satisfaction. There was a negative correlation between job satisfaction and the discrepancies found ". . . between self concept and imposed occupational rôle, between ideal occupational rôle and imposed occupational rôle, and between self-concept and ideal self. . . ." Job satisfaction, however, was positively related to "occupational rôle acceptance."

Rettig and Pasamanick [*19*] conducted 400 interviews to check on the hypothesis that the public school teacher has a lower socio-economic status, aspires to higher status, but indicates a lower subjective supply of status than the total professional sample of 400 varied professionals. The authors further hypothesized that the relationship between status and job satisfaction is probably more crucial among public school teachers than it is for the total professional sample. In each interview the professional was asked to rate a set of professional specialties including his own. The interviewee was further asked to give his aspired status as well as expected status and then to list eight job satisfaction factors in order of importance indicating the degree to which his own job supplied this satisfaction.

The authors concluded that the results supported the hypothesis that the greatest difference between public school teachers and other professionals lies in the area of status and recognition, both objectively and subjectively. They further concluded that the teachers work satisfaction is decreased to the extent that his aspirations exceed his own expected degree of recognition. The teacher is more interested in public recognition than in recognition from other professionals, although the teacher tends to underestimate the standing accorded to him by the general public.

In a study comparing non-supervisory scientists and technicians with research and development scientists, Peters and Lee [*16*] found that both groups desired higher status or increased recognition and that pay increases alone did not satisfy their needs. Challenging work and adequate incentives appeared to be of great importance to scientists.

Satisfaction and Industry

Zaleznik, Christensen, and Roethlisberger [*26*] conducted an intensive study of 50 industrial workers to learn more about factors determining motivation, productivity, and satisfaction. They gathered basic data on all workers, used the individ-

ual interview technique at the beginning and end of the study, and observed in the work situation for a period of six months. They made many predictions at the beginning of, and during, the study and then compared outcomes to their predictions.

Women tended to express greater job satisfaction (67 per cent satisfied) than men (38 per cent satisfied). Job satisfaction appeared to be strongly related to ethnicity, satisfaction with associations, and status in the work group. Determinants of satisfaction within the work groups seemed to be: (1) well-established status ranks; (2) high internal group development; (3) degree to which external status and internal social position were in line with each other.

In a study of 500 former employees of a large automobile plant [*18*], lowered status appeared to be more damaging ". . . to the self-esteem and morale of the worker than the sheer fact of being unemployed." Morale was higher among the highly skilled, 46-year-old workers who felt relatively young than among those who described themselves as middle-aged or old. Those who owned their own homes, had some savings, and had faith in other people appeared to possess higher morale than others.

Speroff [*21*] administered the Tear Ballot for Industry to 36 workers in two small independently-owned and unorganized plants. The job tenure rate (work years over number of jobs held) for each worker was computed and utilized as ". . . an independent criterion against which to correlate the individual job satisfaction items of the Tear Ballot. . . ." The validity of the Tear Ballot was tested ". . . on the premise that the higher the job satisfaction scores, the lower will be the job-related interpersonal communicative contacts between labor and management members." A significant negative relationship (−0.76) was found between job satisfaction and the number of job-related interviews held during the course of one year.

In a questionnaire study by Brown [*3*], no significant differences were found in over-all job satisfaction as expressed by "101 New Zealanders and 61 British migrants" in the Royal New Zealand Air Force. More migrants than native New Zealanders felt they were not in the best jobs possible and that conditions were better outside the Air Force than in. "The differences observed between them depended largely on the expectations and motivations of the migrants."

Trow [*24*] tested the relationship of autonomy of position and need for autonomy to job satisfaction and status. Forty-four volunteer college students filled out NEED questionnaires at the beginning and conclusion of the experiment. The experiment consisted of having students work on a series of tasks; the nature of the work demanded that students communicate with each other through written notes when deemed necessary. At the conclusion of the experiment, Trow found that subjects with rather high autonomy were better satisfied with their jobs than those who were more dependent. This relationship was particularly strong for those subjects who had expressed a relatively high need for autonomy in the NEED questionnaires.

Satisfaction and Leadership

After surveying recent research on administrative leadership, morale, and motivation within groups, Likert and Seashore [*12*] concluded that the performances and morale of employees are more strongly influenced by their immediate superiors than by any other factor in the work environment. Superiors need to develop patterns of motivational conditions which are, for a given group or individual, ". . . harmonious with the goal of the individuals and specifically harmonious with the common human need for social approbation." Attention must be given to "the nature of the groups within the organization" and the supervisor must be aware of the fact that high producers are usually those who feel under relatively little pressure.

Anifeeff [*1*] administered a 40-item questionnaire to 48 employees and 78 ". . . top-echelon administrators in the business field. . . ." The questionnaire was concerned with a measure of job satisfaction and various issues about which people

might have widely divergent feelings. Although most employees and administrators were satisfied with their jobs, "job satisfaction or its absence was found less instrumental in fostering attitudinal divergence than membership in opposing occupational groups." Satisfied administrators contributed least to "cleavage in attitudes among groups" while dissatisfied administrators contributed most.

Vincent [*25*] contended ". . . that organized labor or the affiliation of workers has fostered as a whole for its members two chief desires, security and recognition." Despite numerous efforts, however, many members do not gain these two goals. He cited a study by Menniger and Levison which showed that workers rated "appreciation for good work" first while foremen rated it eighth. Workers rated "feeling in on things" and "help with personal problems" in second and third places; "job security" and "good wages" occupied fourth and fifth places. Foremen rated "good wages" first. In no instance did workers and foremen agree as to the relative place which they assigned to the categorical headings mentioned above.

Smith [*20*] suggested a few techniques to be used by psychologists and personnel workers to help understand, insure, and maintain job satisfaction in industry and business. He considers psychological tests and interviews resulting in suitable job placement as important tools in fostering job satisfaction. Smith also recommended the use of attitude scales and interviews as determinants of "on the job" satisfaction. He suggested that industry might offer a *service* to employees with personality and mental health problems.

Cozan [*4*] indicated, that contrary to general belief, available research shows that too much specialization has an adverse effect on productivity. Two extremely large companies, employing mainly white collar workers, found that job enlargement was quite effective in increasing employee morale. Enlargement took the form of employee participation in management decisions and greater authority within the work environment.

Strong [*22*] hypothesized that correlations between job satisfaction and production are low because measures of job satisfaction and success on the job are inadequate. He felt that although we have learned from past job satisfaction surveys, now we need ". . . to isolate and define the basic components, and find some way to measure each of them."

Strong accepts the concept of satisfaction in terms of dependency upon what an individual wants from the world and what he expects to get. He suggested the possibility of learning more about actual job attitudes now, and that, in the future, we attempt to measure motivation rather than "satisfaction of a given moment." Capacities and goals become most important in attempting to predict future behavior. "The greater the chance of attaining goals, probably, the greater the probable satisfaction."

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The following list includes many references not mentioned in the article. For the convenience of those who wish to read further on the subject, but who do not care to examine all of the references in the bibliography, the following selections are listed:

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PLAY DEPICTS FAMILY REACTION TO WORKING MOTHER

Help Wanted, a one-act play about family reaction to the subject of working wives and mothers was recently published by Human Relations Aids. The 25 minute, six character play poses the question "should mother work when there is no financial need?" and examines the pros and cons in light of a typical family situation in which each of the other members of the family is invited by the mother to voice an opinion and help her make a decision. Their responses, and the feelings behind their responses, are exposed for audience consideration.

The publisher states that the play can be successfully performed by amateurs with a minimum of rehearsal time and suggests the play be used to stimulate discussions by community groups and social or service organizations. *Help Wanted* is available in single copies for $1.25 each or in producing packets for $5.00 each. Each producing packet contains six scripts, directions for staging the play, and a discussion guide. Address all requests to Human Relations Aids, 104 East 25th Street, New York 10, New York.

Graduate Training in Industrial Relations:
AN EARLY LOOK

ROBERTA J. NELSON and GEORGE W. ENGLAND

IN JULY, 1953, the Graduate School of the University of Minnesota authorized an experimental program leading to a master's degree in industrial relations. Within the general framework of this program, a graduate student may select courses which best meet his individual needs and objectives in preparing for a career in this field. The flexible curriculum emphasizes the major field of industrial relations and at least two related fields. The related fields most frequently chosen are psychology and business administration, but sociology, political science, public administration, and industrial engineering are also represented among the minor fields selected by students.

In selecting candidates for the master's degree under this experimental program, attention has been given to the quality of the applicant's undergraduate work, his score on the Miller Analogies Test, and his interest in the field. No specific requirements have been stated in terms of undergraduate courses or curriculum.

Forty students had received the Master's Degree in Industrial Relations by December, 1958. The records of these graduates have been analyzed to provide information which is needed in the continuing evaluation and modification of the program. Specifically, this report answers the following questions about students who have successfully completed the degree requirements:

1. What background of undergraduate training have these students had?
2. What grade records have they earned in graduate course work?
3. Are undergraduate records and the Miller Analogies Test useful predictors of scholastic achievement in graduate course work?
4. What types of jobs have these students obtained upon completion of the master's degree?

Candidates' Undergraduate Backgrounds

Approximately one-third of the MA in IR degree holders completed their undergraduate work at the University of Minnesota, another one-third took their undergraduate work at other schools in Minnesota, and the remaining one-third came to Minnesota for graduate study from other states and countries. Industrial relations, economics, business administration, psychology, and social studies were the undergraduate majors taken by more than two-thirds of the candidates for the MA in IR. The remaining students had taken a variety of undergraduate majors. (See TABLE 1.)

Candidates' Grade Records

The 40 students included in this study all met the scholastic requirements set by the Graduate School for completion of the master's degree. Their honor point ratios ranged from 3.00 (B average) to 4.00 (A average), with a mean honor point ratio of 3.42 for all courses included in the graduate program.[1] The total number of credits

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The authors wish to express their appreciation to Thelma Kunde Treml, Perry Galvin, and Kenneth Erpelding for assistance in collection of data for this study.

The authors also state: "In view of the increasing number of graduate programs in industrial relations, there is a definite need for evaluation studies. No such studies have been published, to our knowledge. We are aware of one unpublished study conducted by the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Illinois, which we received in private correspondence with the Professor Stanley S. Stark. We hope that this preliminary report will stimulate other more complete program evaluations in the field of industrial relations."

[1] Roughly, the HPR's may be interpreted as follows: 4.00 = A average. 3.50 = B+ average; half A's, half B's. 3.00 = B average.

TABLE 1

Undergraduate Majors

Industrial Relations	7
Economics	6
Business Administration	5
Psychology	5
Social Studies	4
Law (B.S. degree)	2
English	2
Political Science	2
Engineering	2
Chemistry	1
General Science	1
Sociology	1
Philosophy	1
Interdisciplinary Studies	1
	40

completed by students taking the degree ranged from 45 to 60 credits of graduate course work. As can be seen in TABLE 2, these industrial relations graduate students obtained approximately the same average HPR in the major and related fields that composed their total graduate programs.

Predictors of Scholastic Achievement

Honor point ratio in undergraduate course work correlates 0.36 ($P < 0.02$) with honor point ratios in graduate course work for 37 MA in IR degree holders. Undergraduate honor point ratio has limited usefulness as a predictor of scholastic achievement at the graduate level. Among the students who were "above average achievers" in graduate work, 55 per cent had undergraduate grade averages of "B" or better.

TABLE 2

Average HPR's for Courses Taken for the Master's Degree ($N = 40$)

Courses	*Average (Mean) HPR*
All courses in MA program	3.42
Industrial Relations (major)	3.40
Psychology	3.46
Business Administration	3.42
All others*	3.50

* Includes courses in sociology, economics (other than labor economics), political science, public health, journalism, industrial engineering, speech and law.

TABLE 3

Undergraduate Scholastic Records as a Predictor of Scholastic Achievement in Graduate Work

Undergraduate Honor Point Ratio	*Graduate Honor Point Ratio (Mean = 3.42)* *Above Average* $N = 18$ %	*Below Average* $N = 19$ %
Above average (Mean 2.95)	55	37
Below average	45	63
	100	100

Among the "below average achievers" in graduate work, 63 per cent had undergraduate records below a "B" average. TABLE 3 shows these percentages.

The Miller Analogies Test score (University of Minnesota Entering Graduate percentile norms) correlates 0.63 ($P < 0.001$) with total honor point ratio in graduate courses for MA in IR graduates. This relationship suggests that the Miller Analogies Test score may be a useful guide in admission of students to this program. For example, if a cutting score equal to the 44th percentile of Entering Graduate norms had been used in selecting potentially "good" candidates for the MA in IR program, 78 per cent of the "above average grade achievers" would have been selected while only 16 per cent of the "below average grade achievers" would have been selected. These percentages are shown in TABLE 4.

TABLE 4

Miller Analogies Test Scores as a Predictor of Scholastic Achievement in Graduate Work in Industrial Relations

Miller Score	*Graduate Honor Point Ratio (Mean = 3.42)* *Above Average* $N = 18$ %	*Below Average* $N = 19$ %
Above 44th percentile	78	16
Below 44th percentile	22	84
	100	100

TABLE 5

Predictors of Scholastic Achievement in Graduate Work in IR

	Above Average Achievers in Graduate Work, %
Undergraduate HPR above 2.95 (N = 18)	
Miller above 44th percentile (N = 11)	91
Miller below 44th percentile (N = 6)	0
Undergraduate HPR below 2.95 (N = 19)	
Miller above 44th percentile (N = 5)	60
Miller below 44th percentile (N = 14)	28

In FIGURE 1, Miller scores are shown in parentheses on a scatter diagram of undergraduate and graduate honor point ratios for each student. Some interesting observations may be made about the joint usefulness of the Miller Analogies Test and undergraduate honor point ratios as predictors of scholastic success at the graduate level. For example, 91 per cent of the students who had undergraduate honor point ratios above 2.95 *and* Miller scores above the 44th percentile for Entering Graduates were "above average achievers" in graduate work. Other percentages are summarized in TABLE 5.

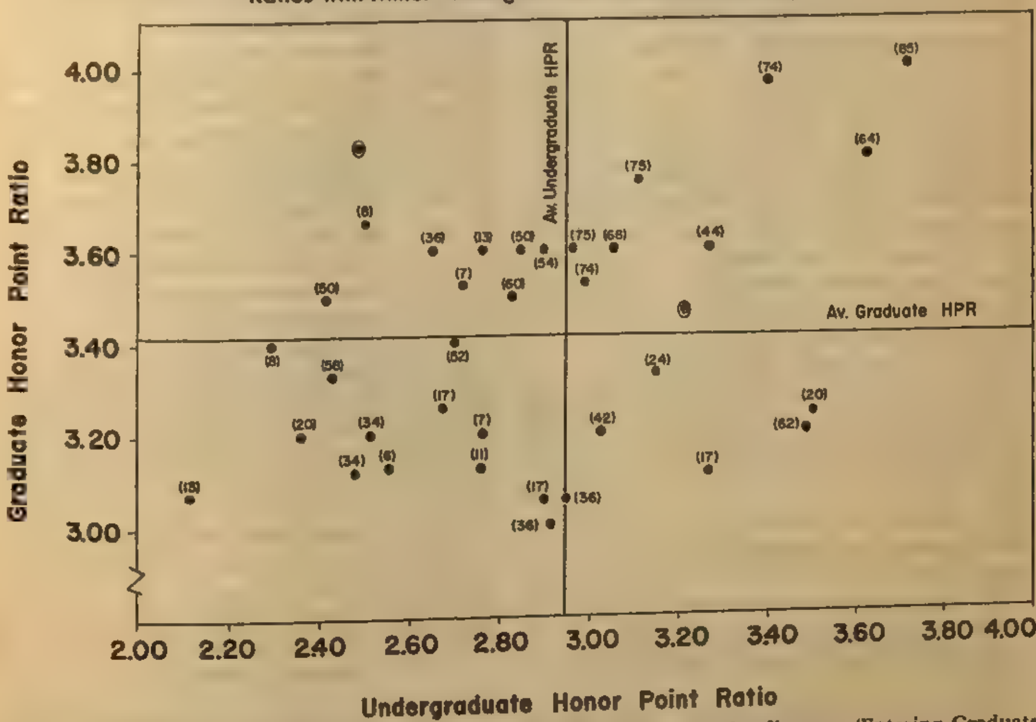
Graduates' First Jobs

A follow-up of the 40 MA in IR graduates shows that 33 of them accepted personnel or industrial relations jobs (or training assignments in preparation for such jobs) upon completion of the master's degree.[3] These

[3] Of the remaining seven graduates, two are continuing their graduate work toward the Ph.D. degree. Three are in military service. One student who had completed a Ph.D. degree in Psychology prior to the MA in IR is an assistant professor at the University of Illinois. On one graduate, no follow-up information is available.

FIGURE 1

Scatter Diagram of Undergraduate and Graduate Honor Point Ratios with Miller Analogies Test Scores* (N = 37)



* The Miller Analogies Test Scores are represented by the numbers in the diagram (Entering Graduate percentiles). ⊙ = No Miller score.

jobs were in companies throughout the United States. The two foreign students returned to their home countries. Starting salaries averaged $456 per month and ranged from $300 to $580. TABLE 6 summarizes the first job assignments of these 33 students.

Graduates' Evaluation of Program

To aid in the evaluation of the MA in IR program, the graduates were asked to appraise the training they had received. Completed questionnaires were received from 27 graduates. Their answers are summarized below.

1. *How well has your graduate training in industrial relations prepared you for your present job?* Fifteen graduates stated that their graduate courses had provided satisfactory preparation for their present jobs; nine rated their training as "very good," and two rated it "excellent." One graduate replied that his course work had limited

TABLE 6

First Jobs Accepted by Graduates upon Completion of MA in IR

Location	*Position*
East	
General Electric Company, Pittsfield, Mass.	Public & Employee Relations Trainee
Esso Research & Engineering Co., Linden, N. J.	Employee Relations Assistant (2)
Chase Manhattan Bank, New York, N. Y.	Trainee
Procter and Gamble, Cincinnati, Ohio	Trainee
Cresap, McCormick & Paget, New York, N. Y.	Management Engineer
Middle West	
State of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minn.	Vocational Rehabilitation Counselor
Remington Rand Univac, St. Paul, Minn.	Wage and Salary Administrator
Associated Industries of Minneapolis, Minn.	Research Assistant
AC Spark Plug Division of GM, Flint, Mich.	Trainee
Industrial Relations Center, U. of Minn.	Research Scientist
Oliver Iron Mining Division, U. S. Steel Corp., Duluth, Minn.	Industrial Relations Trainee
Aluminum Company of America, Davenport, Iowa	Personnel Trainee
Federal Reserve Bank, Minneapolis, Minn.	Personnel Assistant
Donaldson Company, Inc., St. Paul, Minn.	Employment Supervisor
Minneapolis Star and Tribune, Minneapolis, Minn.	Employment Supervisor
Queen Products Co., Albert Lea, Minn.	Assistant Personnel Director
Elgin National Watch Co., Elgin, Ill.	Employment Supervisor
National Presto Company, Eau Clair, Wisc.	Personnel Assistant
Ralston Purina, Minneapolis, Minn.	Personnel Manager
Emporium, St. Paul, Minn.	Assistant Personnel Manager
Whirlpool Corporation, St. Joseph, Mich.	Deferred Compensation Consultant
Whirlpool Corporation, St. Joseph, Mich.	Management Trainee
Lutheran Brotherhood Insurance, Minneapolis, Minn.	Administrative Assistant
St. Paul Committee on IR, St. Paul, Minn.	Research and Consultant Assistant
Chevrolet-Flint Mfg., Flint, Mich.	Production Supervisor
South	
The Texas Company, Houston, Texas	Dealer Training Representative
Esso Standard Oil, Baton Rouge, La.	Business Analyst
West	
Pacific Gas & Electric Co., Sacramento, Calif.	Personnel Assistant
Lenkurt Electric Co., San Carlos, Calif.	Personnel Assistant
American Potash & Chemical Corp., Trona, Calif.	Personnel Assistant
Foreign	
Imperial Oil, Ltd., Toronto, Canada	Employee Relations Assistant
McPherson's, Ltd., Australia	Personnel Manager

value on his present assignment as a factory trainee.

2. *Which courses in your graduate program have been of greatest value to you?* Senior Topics in Industrial Relations was mentioned as "most valuable" by 15 respondents. Other courses mentioned frequently were Introduction to Industrial Relations, Advanced Personnel Administration, Seminar in Industrial Relations, Labor Legislation: Collective Bargaining, Psychology in Personnel Work, Vocational and Occupational Psychology.

3. *Which courses do you consider of least value?* Most of the respondents qualified their answers by adding the phrase "of least value to date," indicating that their evaluation of courses may change with changes in job assignment. There was little agreement on courses of least value, the choices apparently reflecting current job requirements. However, courses dealing with contract negotiation, settlement of labor disputes, economics, and top level policy formulation appeared to have least applicability to the graduates' first jobs.

4. *Have you felt that there are deficiencies in your graduate training—courses you wish you had taken?* The most frequently mentioned deficiency was statistics. Twelve graduates reported that they needed a better background in statistics, particularly in its application to personnel data. Seven graduates wished they had taken more courses in psychology.

5. *What suggestions would you make for modification of the MA in IR program?* A work internship program which would provide opportunity for on-the-job experience in addition to course work in industrial relations was suggested by six respondents. "More—and tougher—statistics courses" was the suggestion of four graduates. Others mentioned the need for more seminar courses with closer supervision of graduate students in the design of research studies and the proper application of analytical techniques.

Summary

A review of the records of 40 graduate students who have successfully completed the requirements for the MA in IR degree indicates that on the average these students have maintained B+ grade records in their graduate course work. Undergraduate grade record appears to have limited value as a predictor of scholastic performance in Graduate School. The correlation of 0.63 between score on the Miller Analogies Test and grade record in graduate courses suggests that this test may be useful as a predictor of performance in graduate course work. When considered together, the Miller Analogies Test score and undergraduate grade records may be used as general guide lines for admission of graduate students to this program.

There has been an active demand for students who have completed the MA in IR program, as evidenced by the first jobs accepted by these graduates. A follow-up study of these graduates at intervals during their careers will be needed to measure their professional progress.

When asked to appraise their graduate training, these graduates stated that in general they felt well prepared for their first jobs. The courses which they found most applicable to their job assignments were Senior Topics in Industrial Relations, Labor Legislation: Collective Bargaining, Advanced Personnel Administration, Introduction to Industrial Relations, Seminar in Industrial Relations, Psychology in Personnel Work, and Vocational and Occupational Psychology. The areas in which they felt they needed additional course work were statistics and psychology. The addition of a work internship program was suggested as a desirable modification of the present requirements for the MA in IR. These appraisals of the value of various courses may change as graduates advance in their careers. A periodic follow-up study could provide information on these changes.

This analysis has been based on students who have met all the requirements established by the Graduate School for the MA in IR degree. A correlative study of drop-outs in this program would provide additional data on the usefulness of undergraduate grade records and the Miller Analogies School.

Letters

from our readers

Makeshift Counselors

To the Editor:

Most, if not all, of the discussion of the National Defense Education Act, which the writer has heard or read, has been almost unqualified in its praise. We have been told that the provisions for counselor training will result in tremendous improvements in the quantity and quality of counseling services in the schools. Perhaps more critical comments may seem ungrateful or constitute biting the hand which feeds one. Perhaps it is inexpedient for organizations, such as APGA, to be critical at this time, even though the Act did not incorporate the recommendations of many professional people as well as professional organizations. At any rate, it appears unpopular to be critical of the Acts' provisions.

I am accustomed to championing unpopular causes, however, and it seems to be desirable that the loyal opposition be heard from at this time. For it seems to me that, as far as counselor training is concerned, the NDEA is not only inadequate because it does not go far enough but that it is leading to harmful conditions as far as the improvement of the quality of professional counseling services in the schools is concerned. Let it be clear that my criticisms are of the legislation, not of the agency and the personnel charged with implementation.

The deleterious results of the situation in which counselors are made by assigning counseling duties to a teacher are well known. That the acquisition by such persons of a few courses in summer school or by extension work does not make a counselor is also recognized. Lester B. Granger, Executive Director of the National Urban League, speaking to participants of the White House Conference on Children and Youth, referred to such persons as "makeshift counselors." The applause with which this statement was greeted led him to remark: "I didn't know so many people cared." The immediate stimulation for this letter was my being in the audience on this occasion. I am afraid that many people see the NDEA as remedying the situation where most counselors are "makeshift counselors."

As a matter of fact, the Act encourages the increase of such counselors. It directly encourages school administrators to assign counseling duties to untrained individuals who will then be eligible for a guidance institute and who will then become counselors and in most cases continue to function as counselors with no further training. This does not contribute to raising standards for counselors to a professional level. Such a level requires full-time professional training in a counseling curriculum for at least a year at the graduate level. Thus, rather than raising standards in counseling, the NDEA merely increases the number of "makeshift counselors" in our schools.

An even greater danger exists in the workshops which the States are setting up with NDEA support. Here, heterogeneous groups of school personnel enroll in brief courses (16 hours, more or less) and, in general, hope to learn "all about the uses of tests," each in his own individual situation, which may vary from teaching a fifth grade class to the duties of a visiting teacher. With no background in tests or measurement and resistance to acquiring such basic knowledge, such participants can be given little in the way of sound training. A little knowledge can be a dangerous thing. Perhaps the most that can be done is to make such persons aware of the dangers of attempting to use tests or test results without adequate training.

Thus, instead of constituting a step forward in the provision of professionally trained and qualified counselors, it seems to me that the NDEA is actually a backward step, which is going to assure that for a long time to come we will have "makeshift counselors" in our schools.

C. H. Patterson
Associate Professor of Education
University of Illinois

Too Many Fences Restricting Counselor Growth?

To the Editor:

Counselors need breadth of training and experience as much, or more, than do policy makers or executives. Are personnel policies, conducive to security and personal advancement, too often incompatible with the growth needs of counselors? What, if anything, should and could be done to compensate for fences of this kind?

On-the-job efforts at research, searching literary scholarship, and team interaction could help. Combining counseling and teaching, as practiced in some institutions, no doubt, is a step in the right direction. Wide use of summer or other free periods could help.

Institutions encourage guidance and personnel workers in the direction of professional development. They could, and probably often should, do more in this direction. Security systems should allow for semesters off for employment elsewhere—even moonlighting—to foster breadth and improve perspectives.

The government can help with such things as guidance institutes and international exchange of professional workers. Subsidizing or work toward advanced degrees also helps. Government should

make increased provision for use of its facilities for experience. Why not open VA hospital internships to guidance and personnel workers?

Professional associations should continually work toward greater mobility for their members. The American Personnel and Guidance Association should work vigorously in the direction of opening up business, hospital, school, and governmental facilities to guidance and personnel workers who want to gain breadth and perspective. The perpetuation of our way of life as a nation is at stake indirectly; the total impact of guidance and personnel services on the young can be decisive.

James W. Russell
Professor of Education and Psychology
California State College, Pennsylvania

Dr. Geist Comments

To the Editor:

I would like very much to correct some misstatements in fact and misinterpretations of intent contained in the review of my test in the February, 1960, issue of the *Personnel and Guidance Journal.*

Firstly, the whole purpose of the use of pictures in the measurement of interests is to rectify the chief problem of verbal tests, viz. semantics. If the problem of semantics is interfering with the true measurement of interests, then the tests themselves are not a true means of measuring interests. The reviewer of my test says: "The Geist scales have been correlated with the relevant scales of the Kuder in several instances. The possible low reliability of the Geist may contribute to the generally low correlations" (I will take care of the charge of low reliability in a minute). The moderate correlations with the Kuder simply mean that my test is measuring some facets of interest the Kuder is measuring and some of the facets it is not. This is all it means, and there is no implication that one test is good or the other is bad. Insofar as "low reliability" is concerned, may I say that a *six month* test retest reliability shows the correlations range from 0.57 to 0.94 with a median of 0.77 and with 10 of the 22 estimates over 0.85. Furthermore, these reliability estimates are much less inflated by response sets, fatigue, and boredom than those found for typical highly verbal interest inventories. There are very few instruments which when originally published have reliabilities over 0.95 which the reviewer must use as a "moderate" criterion. It is also interesting to note that in the very group which the reviewer stated this test would have least use, viz. in the professions, in the University sample where there are potentially the most people who will enter the professions, the median reliability of all the scales is 0.87. The only test of prediction of success in the professions will be the results of longitudinal studies, let us say, 10 or 15 years from now.

One of the neglected areas of interest measurement is that of motivation. Pictures offer an unusual opportunity to get at this motivation factor. Consequently, I devised a motivation forces profile which attempts to get at this motivation factor. Questions are asked about *pictures of choice.* These pictures of choice have been previously scored in a variety of scales. Although the resulting "motivating forces" profile is not directly related to any one scale or even to the highest scales, it is related to the patterns of interest as a whole and should be of use to counselors. The reviewer questions this by stating: "Hence I do not think that the motivation scores will be particularly useful. Doctor Geist offers no empiric evidence to the contrary." Although no empiric evidence is as yet in, it would logically appear that it would be of use to counselors to know in general why his counselees choose the kinds of occupations they do.

Finally, pictures offer a means of doing research in the area of intercultural comparisons, not only on the socio-economic level but also on the geographic level, both within and between different countries; the reviewer neglected to mention this, I presume, because this is one of the prime virtues of such a medium.

Harold Geist
California School for the Deaf
Berkeley, California

And Dr. Tiedeman Replies

To the Editor:

The Geist test need have no necessary dependence upon the Kuder test just as Dr. Geist indicates. Since the Geist test is new, though, it is necessarily almost devoid of empiric content. A user is therefore interested in relying upon the extensive empiric content of its "parent," the Kuder, to whatever extent he can. Actually, the correlations of the Geist and Kuder are of moderate size (see Table 27 of the Manual). Some of the coefficients of stability of the Geist are large as Dr. Geist notes; others are of lesser size (see Table 25 of the Manual). Either the Geist can be temporarily "braced" by the empiric content of the Kuder or it cannot. I chose to infer that such a temporary reliance was possible. Dr. Geist elects to question that inference.

I believe that the other matters which concern Dr. Geist are given adequate consideration in my review.

David V. Tiedeman
Professor of Education
Harvard University

Books Reviewed

reviews of recent publications . . . by various contributors

GUIDANCE: AN INTEGRATING PROCESS IN HIGHER EDUCATION, by May A. Brunson. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958. 180 pp. $5.25.

THIS VOLUME seeks to point up the importance of integration as a guiding philosophy of higher education, particularly as it relates to the guidance program of colleges. The term integration is used "in the sense of achieving 'wholeness'—of the student, the educational environment, and the student and environment as they interact one with another."

The author's approach to the problem of integration in higher education is two-fold: (1) an exploration of the literature related to the topic, and (2) a study of the methods and procedures of integration employed by the colleges and universities participating in the American Council of Education Study in General Education. Fifteen colleges in that study were contacted by a free-response questionnaire and 13 responded. Eight of the colleges are relatively small private two-year and four-year institutions, three are large public four-year colleges and universities, one is a fairly large municipal university, and one is a large public junior college.

No statistics are reported on the programs in these institutions. Quotations from letters and from the questionnaires are presented as evidence of integration. The verbal descriptions from the various institutions are taken at face value.

In referring to the institutions that were assumed to have achieved one or more phases of integration in higher education, it is interesting to note that 68 of the references throughout the volume were made to seven small four-year private colleges, 15 to a fairly small junior college, and only 12 to the four large colleges and universities in the study with a combined enrollment of over 35 thousand students.

A great deal of emphasis is placed in the book on what is called "organic" or "circular" administration in institutions of higher learning. It appears that this form of administration is an attempt to bring the faculty, the student body, and the regularly employed administrators into the overall planning and operation of the colleges as a cooperative team. The administration of the colleges is to be carried on through committees and coordinating councils. The purpose of this plan is to decentralize administration and to bring a greater number of individuals into the control and planning of the institution.

Considerable attention is given to the ways in which the guidance program may contribute to the integration objective of the institutions through its various services such as admissions, orientation, activity programs, advisory services, residence halls, counseling, records, and so forth. A rather sketchy treatment is given of the ways in which the academic and financial personnel of the college may contribute to the program of integration.

The obstacles to integration in higher education such as the attitude of administration, resistance to change in any form, opposition of subject matter minded faculty members, the size of the institution, and the natural tendency for concentration of authority in the colleges are discussed.

It appears that the author feels that decentralization of the administration of student personnel services is a number one consideration. She states: "Only through patterns of decentralization which are organically related to central administrative, instructional, and personnel groups can the process of integration proceed in large, complex universities." Some modest suggestions are made with respect to the type of administrative structure for student personnel services that would work best in the larger institutions such as having one associate dean of women and one associate dean of men in each college who would report, respectively, to the dean of women and the dean of men for the university as a whole. These associate deans would work with faculty members in building a strong student advisory program and in bringing about more participation on the students' part in the planning and execution of their

own affairs and in thinking through problems which affect the institution as a whole.

The author feels that the administrative organization of colleges and universities has no general solution because "every institution is unique" and hence a plan effective for one school will not work in another.

On the whole this volume is well written and represents a wide coverage of the literature not only in the field of student personnel work, but also in the related areas of college and business administration, sociology, psychology, philosophy, and anthropology. The bibliography for the most part is excellent. The objectives of the author, the achievement of a closer integration of student personnel program with the administrative and instructional phase of the college, and the permeation of the institution with the guidance or pupil personnel point of view are highly commendable. One particularly strong point is her emphasis on the importance of bringing students into the policy making of not only the student personnel program itself, but also into the over-all planning of the institution. She points out that the administration of a college not only has the responsibility of operating the institution efficiently, but also of using these operations as part of the training and experience of students.

With respect to the administrative structure for the achievement of the integrative objective of a college, the author appears to be somewhat ambivalent. Sometimes she makes positive suggestions in this area, and then again she seems to lament the fact that such structures are necessary. Dr. Brunson favors decentralization of authority and responsibility as the best method for achieving integration, but she overlooks the fact that this procedure often leads to confusion and inaction. Committees and coordinating councils are good devices only if it has been clearly determined at the outset whether they are advisory or policy making, or policy administrative in their functions.

While the problem of institutional size is recognized in her study, the related problem of level has only been touched indirectly through the discussion of the guidance concepts in education. As this concept has developed in this country, there has been a strong emphasis placed on the involvement of everyone in the school in the pupil welfare program. All staff members

are considered guidance workers. This philosophy has tended to work well at the kindergarten and elementary level, fairly well in high school, and not so effectively in colleges. No doubt the reasons for this are the differences in the ages of the pupils and the increasing specialization of subject matter at the higher levels of instruction. Student personnel work in higher education represents the attempt to retain the guidance philosophy at this level and to express it through the various personnel services to students and in the associations of personnel workers with faculty members and administrators. More attention should have been given in this study to the matter of the level at which the guidance program is put into operation, as it may have important implications for the administrative structure of the personnel program.

It seems unfortunate that the study was so heavily directed toward small liberal arts colleges. As W. H. Cowley pointed out many years ago, the rapid growth of American colleges and universities was one of the major factors which gave rise to the need for student personnel services on a more formalized basis. The small colleges provide these services informally. The large institutions are the ones that tend to become compartmentalized and impersonal, and therefore a need arises for a formal student personnel program.

It seems unfortunate too that the institutions selected for inclusion in the study are, for the most part, located in the eastern section of the United States. Some of the four-year colleges in California and other western states should have been sampled. In this connection it is pointed out that the 14 state colleges in California which presently have a combined enrollment of nearly 80,000 students, wrestled for 10 years with the problems with which Dr. Brunson is concerned in her study and finally came up with an administrative structure for student personnel services that was adopted in 1949. This plan has been in successful operation for over 10 years and has achieved many of the objectives of integration which are discussed only as problems in her study. A report of this plan was published in the November, 1952, issue of this *Journal*, but it does not appear in her bibliography.

While Dr. Brunson's study does not answer very conclusively the problem of how to achieve a greater integration of the pupil personnel philosophy within the total educational setting of a college, yet it has provided an excellent background for the problem and has set forth clearly some of the major issues. Furthermore, her suggestions for the attainment of a better integration of the student personnel philosophy within the total educational setting will stimulate personnel workers to a more thoughtful study of this problem.—HUGH M. BELL, *Professor of Psychology, Chico State College, Chico, California.*

THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF PSYCHOTHERAPY, by Rudolf Ekstein & Robert S. Wallerstein. New York: Basic Books, 1958. 328 pp. $6.50.

WHEN WE scan the spectrum of theories of counseling we find today at least one common quality: we all agree that the attitudes of both counselor and client are of importance in the effectiveness and the outcomes of counseling. While the arena of "directiveness" that once reverberated with the sounds of battle is now happily buried, no counselor trainee can get past his first course or text without learning that *clients* are not coldly rational in coping with life's manifold problems. Sometime later he discovers that he, the *counselor,* has values and emotions that cannot easily be locked up at home. Less concerned though we are about the manner in which we *handle* the client's expressed attitudes, we are far more aware than a decade ago of the attitudes of both parties in counseling and of the interaction of the different value systems.

Except for Porter's *Introduction to Therapeutic Counseling* (Houghton Mifflin, 1950), which sought to make the counselor aware of his own frame of reference and its influence on the client, several chapters in Rogers' *Client-Centered Therapy* (Houghton Mifflin, 1951), and personal works like those of Theodore Reik, we have had nothing that goes beyond generalities or limited case illustration. Now comes a book that depicts the interaction of two (or three or four) persons with clarity, depth, and incisiveness that has no precedent. Eminently qualified by years of experience at the Menninger Foundation as psychoanalysts and as supervisors, the two authors, a psychologist and a psychiatrist,

allow us to peer through the "privileged window of human behavior" to observe the conduct and to infer the attitudes of patient, therapist, supervisor, and administrator in all the possible combinations of interrelationship. They take the reader into the therapist's office where each for himself, patient and therapist, reveals by his behavior that he has brought with him, his characteristic way of reacting to threat. For the therapist the patient represents both a challenge and a threat. His success and his status in the eyes of the administrator, which is determined in large measure by his supervisor's appraisal of his work, depend on his ability to cure the patient. These very needs interfere with his effectiveness in serving the patient and in achieving professional skill and recognition. For the therapist's reactions only arouse greater resistance in the patient: if the therapist's characteristic way of reacting to stress is by self-deprecation and belittlement, he will arouse distrust and a lack of confidence on his patient's part; if the typical reaction is aggression, he will frighten the patient.

It is no different in the supervisor's office when he and the therapist confer. Each brings with him his characteristic reaction pattern to threat and each is aware, even if in an unthreatened way, of the presence of both patient and administrator. The supervisor's defensiveness will lead him to misunderstand the therapist's communication just as between therapist and patient. This becomes patently clear as we follow the training experiences and vicissitudes especially of two therapists, each in a triadic relationship of patient-therapist-supervisor, with administrator always hovering in the background. These four constitute the four sides of the "clinical rhombus" that represents, in the authors' opinion, the field wherein all of the operations of a therapeutic institution occur, no one of which is independent of it. The therapist is concerned with the patient's welfare, his own development which may conflict with it, the supervisor's teachings, and the requirements of the agency as represented by the administrator. The supervisor has to balance both the patient's welfare and the therapist's, for at what point does the beginning therapist's mistakes make him a liability to the agency and the profession? The supervisor too has his ego needs which will sometimes lead him to call on higher authority to maintain his position vis-a-vis a student. The administrator has the difficult task of maintaining a balance, neither overvaluing treatment at the expense of training, nor training at the expense of treatment, neither "siding" with therapist versus supervisor, nor vice versa in an attempt to back up his immediate subordinates.

Some of the authors' assertions may come as a surprise, such as the statement that a personal analysis may not be necessary for a therapist. They differentiate the "professional self" from the "personal self," although recognizing the indivisibility of an individual. Psychoanalysis for the therapist (that is, change in the *personal* self) is not essential to do "certain types of psychotherapy." But change in the *professional* self, change, that is, in our predilection to handle interviews in one particular way or to react rigidly to clients, needs to be accomplished and this can be done through supervision of professional work and not through didactic preparation. Supervisory sessions can help a worker discover his characteristic ways of responding to a person which may be appropriate in the living room with a friend or stranger but not in the office with a client. Such aid protects us from reverting, when we are threatened, to the familiar and more secure role, be it that of teacher, preacher, parent, or good friend.

While supervision can be threatening, as Ekstein and Wallerstein put it, "One who is genuinely identified with helping other people in a way that does not make it necessary for him to look down on those whom he helps, does not mind being helped himself if necessary" (p. 263).

The reviewer of such a book as this must suffer some frustration for one cannot do justice to those portions that can be compared with an artist's canvas. The creative aspects in which subtle but profound interactions occur—that human drama that is sometimes captured in a great painting or a Steichen photograph—these cannot be reproduced through the dissection and analysis of a review.

There is the danger that the title of the book and especially the identification of the authors will lead counselors to pass it by as peripheral to their interests and work. That would be a pity. Although Menninger Clinic was the setting and the training ground for the authors, the book has no mark of Freudianism on it, and its theses

are presented in terms of interpersonal relations that are as meaningful and applicable in a college, high school, or agency counseling and guidance program. One of the great virtues of the book is that it is free of sectarianism and one could substitute the words, client, counselor, director of guidance (or–), and principal (or dean, or–), and with only minor modifications feel perfectly at home. Surely the following statement has wide application: "The administrator would be responsible for the establishment of an environment in which there is maximum security for each of these roles, or tasks—that of getting well, that of treating while learning a skill, and that of teaching a skill while supervising the clinical work" (p. 27).

The authors have provided us with a casebook that cuts through the maze of words and behavior to the central meanings and feelings of the actors in the drama. Part II and several chapters in Part III could be fruitfully used in a study of dynamics of behavior, for the character structure and defense mechanisms of the three principles in this segment of life are clearly delineated.—MILTON SCHWEBEL, *Professor of Education, New York University.*

GUIDANCE IN AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, by Harold M. Byram. Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Publishers and Printers, 1959. 205 pp. $4.50.

THIS CONCISELY written book shows in a rather neat package the unique and important role which the vocational agriculture teacher plays as a guidance person, especially in the smaller rural high schools over the nation. It is a how-to-do-it volume designed to help him to play this role more effectively. It is one that can be readily used by an agriculture teacher out on the job to improve his skills in the area of guidance, and one that can well be utilized by those preparing to teach agriculture.

The author points out the increasing need for the educational and vocational guidance of farm youth and the lack of adequate school guidance services in many rural areas. He has brought together a wide range of information in capsule form and shows how it can be applied by the teacher of agriculture. Specific cases and situations are used. He emphasizes how the agricultural teacher, during his home visits to supervise the student's farm practices, becomes acquainted with the student, his goals, am-

bitions, and problems as no other school person does. Further, during these contacts he becomes acquainted with other members of the family and has an unusual opportunity to interpret the school program and to provide guidance services to others, as well as being in a better position to provide effective guidance service to his student in agriculture. The author also points out the value of these home contacts to other teachers and the school administration and feels that this valuable knowledge of the agriculture teacher should be utilized to greater extent by them.

The book contains many specifics pertaining to counseling agriculture students, as well as those who do not take agriculture. For example, the author points out the reduced numbers of persons engaged in agriculture and also the vast amount of knowledge, managerial ability, and capital needed to become a successful farm operator today. Also, that there is a period of about five years following graduation from high school in which the occupational status of many young men on farms is in a state of flux. They move in and out of farming and shift from one status to another.

Concisely presented are some basic principles of guidance and techniques that may be used (1) in gaining information about students, (2) in interpreting that information, (3) in studying occupations and their relation to the many opportunities of employment open to rural youth both on and off the farm, and (4) in evaluating guidance services rendered by the agriculture teacher.

At the end of each chapter is a list of suggested activities which are designed to aid the agriculture teacher or prospective agriculture teacher in applying the principles and information presented. A list of selected references also appears at the end of each chapter.

A substantial appendix to the book contains (1) an annotated list of selected publications on agricultural occupations and (2) suggested record forms that might be used in guidance of agriculture students.

The author has succeeded rather well in bringing together some of the key principles and practices of guidance and in applying them in practical ways for use by teachers of vocational agriculture.—GLEN L. WEAVER, *Coordinator of Guidance Services, Oregon State Department of Education.*

MENTAL HEALTH AND HUMAN RELATIONS IN EDUCATION, by Louis Kaplan. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959. 476 pp. $5.00.

THE BASIC contention of the author of this book is that adjustment and maladjustment are for the most part learned and, therefore, schools have a responsibility in determining which the child will develop. The author's goal is to bring together current knowledge and experiences in the area of mental health education and to synthesize it in such a way that teachers, parents, and school officials will be stimulated to intensify their activities in this educative area.

The first four chapters which constitute Part I present the scope and seriousness of the problem of mental health in American society. The author brings together a wide variety of data which help the reader to form a functional conception of the problem.

In order to provide a background against which the functions of the school can be discussed, Part II considers the factors outside the school, that is, in the home and community, that influence the development of behavior.

The remainder of the book is devoted to a discussion of the nature of child behavior and development and what the school can do in furthering mental health. The latter includes a discussion of the contributions the teacher can make in the classroom both through the climate created and the content taught and the contributions the school administration can make in the whole process.

The author has assembled an unusually complete bibliography on each of the topics included and has woven the material into a connected discussion. The variety of studies included makes this an excellent textbook or source book of information on what has been reported in the literature. At the close of the book there is a very extensive listing of audio-visual aids grouped according to the chapters to which the items most directly apply.

In such a relatively new area as mental health in education many basic analyses have to be made since the problem is an extremely complex one. The author states that it is his basic contention that schools have a function beyond the inculcation of knowledge and skills, that they must also

educate for mental health. When we analyze the content involved in education for mental health we find that it certainly includes helping the child to understand human behavior (knowledge) and learning to apply (skills) this understanding in his daily living. Why set teaching of knowledge and skills *over against* education for mental health?

Similarly, in the discussion of behavior deviations in the classroom the teacher has to learn what underlies a given form of behavior before it can be classed as a deviation or anything else. This means that the teacher must learn how to study the child so as to gain insight into what a given incident of behavior means to him. The author has a section on studying children in the classroom but this is not brought to bear directly on understanding behavior in the classroom. Interpreting behavior is in one section; studying behavior is in another and the two are never brought together. Other examples where further analysis is required could be cited.

The author has done an excellent job in bringing together such studies as have appeared in the literature. The product is a very valuable source of information about the extent of the problem, the investigations that have been made of influences in the home and school and of current school practices.—Ralph H. Ojemann, *Professor of Psychology, State University of Iowa.*

The Social Psychology of Groups, by John W. Thibaut & Harold H. Kelley. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959. 313 pp. $7.00.

The intent of the authors is to present a theory of interpersonal relations and group functioning. Their central concern is with the concept of interdependency or the reciprocal control members of a group have on one another. The book is divided into two parts. Part I consists of nine chapters; these are devoted to the description of the functioning of a two-person relationship, the *dyad.* The authors correctly assumed that a clear presentation of the dyadic relationship in Part I would enable their audience better to grasp the functioning of a more complex social relationship presented in the five chapters in Part II. This division, however, resulted in the need, especially in Part II, to make many referrals to preceding chapters and to repeat material previously presented. At times, the repetition was extremely helpful but the extent of it also caused the reviewer to feel that some of this repetition was excessive.

The authors used the reward-cost standard to demonstrate under what circumstances a person will enter and remain in a relationship and under what circumstances he will choose to leave or discontinue the relationship. The CL (*comparison level*) is the name given to the standard against which a person evaluates whether he is getting from the relationship what he feels he deserves and the CL_{alt} (*the comparison level for alternatives*) is the name given to the lowest level of outcome he will accept and still remain in a relationship.

To make possible an objective recording or accounting of the reward-cost consequences or outcomes of social interaction a simple matrix was devised wherein a numerical recording of the joint outcomes of behavior between two persons was made. Zero is used to equal the CL_{alt} and positive integers to indicate the extent of the reward or outcome. When more than two members interacted the matrix was extended to show the interdependence of members on one another, their satisfactions, and the patterns of control.

The explanation of Power and Dependence, Norms and Roles in Part I and Conformity to Norms in Part II, to this reviewer, is especially intriguing.

The reviewer also found the authors' treatment of power relationship through the use of the concepts of fate control and behavioral control to be unique and convincing. The explanation given for the development of norms was especially illuminating.

The ability of the authors to draw upon much of the latest research to support their hypotheses and at the same time weave these documentations into their presentation with a minimum of indistinctness makes this book especially readable and authoritative. The up-to-date bibliography, alone, gives this book a special usefulness as a resource.

Chapter summaries are among the best, insofar as their organization and inclusiveness is concerned, that this reviewer has read.

This book brings together in a unified theory much of the present knowledge of

small groups and should be a valuable addition to the libraries of those interested in the functioning of small groups.—GEORGE M. GAZDA, *Assistant Professor of Education, University of Illinois.*

LIBERAL EDUCATION AND NURSING, by Charles H. Russell. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. 149 pp. $3.00.

WITHIN RECENT years, leading educators in this country have turned an appraising eye in the direction of liberal and professional education. In tune with the times, the present book, devoted to an exploration of the relationship between liberal education and nursing, is but one in a series of studies that will attempt to examine the contribution of liberal education to agriculture, business administration, education, engineering, journalism, music, pharmacy.

Since it is expected that undergraduate educational programs with specific vocational orientation will continue to expand, the book makes a plea for professional education so designed as to meet the vocational needs of youth in a complex, changing society and for liberal education so integrated throughout the curriculum as to prepare the citizen of tomorrow for intelligent and unbiased understanding of self in relation to life about him. To that end, the book suggests that professional schools include well-organized and well-taught courses in philosophy, literature, music, art, history, foreign languages, international affairs, and provide the student with experiences in "intellectual process other than those conventionally employed in his major academic field of interest." The book spells out the objectives of the liberal arts curriculum: to inspire to learn, to stimulate, to seek wisdom through the extension of knowledge and reflection of its meaning, to increase one's insights into the nature of things, to become much more introspective with respect to one's attitudes, ideals, and traits of personality and character and the like.

The brief historical survey on the role of liberal arts in the education of nurses presented in Chapter Two reminds one of the influences and trends in teacher training over the past number of years. Each profession is fortunate in leadership that is able to see the relationship between competency in one's area of specialization and the development of personal qualities that lead to increased self-reliance and self-directing behavior. That collegiate education for teachers has advanced more rapidly than that of collegiate education for nurses may perhaps be due to the fact that most normal schools have either been discontinued or have been integrated into the academic life of the college or the university while the majority of nurses continue to be prepared in hospital schools of nursing. Even where a hospital school of nursing has become affiliated with a university in order to provide collegiate education, the policies, more often than not, remain the policies of hospital schools of nursing. Then too, public opinion and legislation in the past, somehow, have not supported nor insisted on collegiate education for nurses as they have for teachers. However, changes are beginning to appear that cannot help but further the objectives of the nursing profession.

The relatively slow advance in collegiate education for nurses may also be due to the varying opinions held with regard to the programing of liberal arts courses in professional preparation. Chapter Three is devoted to an examination of these opinions. Representative college catalogues, detailed analyses of the programs of 31 colleges of nursing, and interviews with administrators, faculty, and students furnish the basis for the discussion. One of the issues that is referred to quite frequently is whether general education courses should be separate or part of professional preparation.

Although the National League of Nursing, the professional organization for nurse educators and others, endorsed the principle in 1950 to the effect that the collegiate program "include or be built upon at least two years of general collegiate education," the actual division of courses or credits has varied greatly from school to school. Thus, nutrition, general and pathogenic microbiology, fundamentals of social work may all be grouped under the two years of general collegiate education or they may be grouped under professional education. English composition, literature, art, and history courses may account for 20 per cent of the general education courses in one school with no minimum set in another

school. Some schools make it possible for students to elect courses in the general area while other schools make no such provision. Supporting area courses such as chemistry, biology, physics, psychology, sociology, and nutrition generally exceed those required in the general area. Fifty per cent of the colleges studied do not meet the standards of their own professional association that there be an equal division between professional and general collegiate studies. Some schools exceed this division in favor of general collegiate studies while others fall quite short of the suggested objective.

The kind of courses offered by a liberal arts department has some bearing on students' choices and faculty recommendations. Collegiate nursing departments have been known to set up their own courses and section in the natural and behavioral sciences where liberal arts departments fail to meet the needs of nursing students. However, many leading nurse educators oppose the organization of special courses or the segregation of nursing students from all other students on campus.

Over 130 interviews with deans, faculty members, and students at six colleges of nursing indicate that all support the study of liberal arts subjects in professional education. Differences in opinion occur as to whether the two years of general education should precede or be correlated with professional education. Preferences appear to be high for the concurrent or integrated approach. The majority of deans and faculty members oppose the suggestion for lengthening the nursing program so as to include more liberal arts content but a majority of students would accept the idea of lengthening the program in order to accommodate broader instruction in liberal arts subjects. While many faculty members favor a reduction in the length of the professional preparation in order to increase liberal arts content, there are many who oppose such a plan.

The discussion of the factors that influence liberal education in nursing education apply equally well to other professional groups. The role of the president, the board of trustees, or other governing bodies who determine curricular policy are briefly reviewed and examples of situations cited in order to demonstrate the effect of administrative influence on ongoing nursing programs. One cannot help but think that this part of the discussion in particular, although not so intended, could be quite helpful to one considering a new job in a college or university which demands administrative responsibility.

The recommendation offered—to have liberal arts and nursing faculties work and plan together—has already been tried by many leaders in nursing education. Although the student personnel worker or the guidance counselor is not referred to in this study, it would seem that he too would be the logical person to include in any deliberations that might take place between a liberal arts and a nursing department. As a matter of fact, the counselor on the collegiate or secondary school level will find much in this study that will prepare him to understand the academic problems of a growing profession.

The problems discussed in this study of liberal education and nursing differ little from those of teacher or counselor training. The present writer has become so interested in the material and the manner in which it has been presented that she has now embarked on a reading of the other publications in the series while eagerly awaiting the publication of the studies on the other professions.—Goldie Ruth Kaback, *Associate Professor, The City College School of Education, New York City.*

Psychology at Work in the Elementary School Classroom, by Beeman N. Phillips, Ralph L. Duke, & M. Vere Devault. New York: Harper & Bros., 1960. 395 pp. $5.00.

The title describes this book very well. Its authors designed it to help the elementary school teacher better to understand and apply research findings in improving her classroom practices; and this reviewer believes that there has been reasonable success in achieving the goal.

Part I of the book treats the problems involved in classroom organization and interpersonal relationships, and Part II discusses the problems of directing pupil behavior and learning. The material in Part I is divided into three topics: The Group in Classroom Organization; Personal Variables Affecting Classroom Organization; and Patterns of Interpersonal Relation-

ships. Four topics were treated in Part II: Motivating Pupils; Planning and Organizing Learning Tasks; Providing Appropriate Pupil Activity; and Assessing, Evaluating, and Re-directing Learning.

The book is very well organized. For each part there is an orientation section outlining the major concepts which are treated and an introduction raising pertinent questions and summarizing key ideas. Each of the topics covered is divided into two sections: (1) a research studies section of previously published papers; and (2) a section which describes a number of classroom incidents with discussion of each in terms of clearly presented principles. From the point of view of its value to the teacher, this last section is the book's best feature.

Though the reviewer liked this book very much, several of its characteristics bothered him. At the outset, the authors stated that they wanted to improve the relationship between research and practice; unfortunately, teachers have difficulty understanding many of the research studies included. Since the authors write well and demonstrate keen understanding of the classroom situations, they could have achieved two important objectives by summarizing the papers in less technical language: (1) made the research more meaningful and (2) improved teachers' understanding of research methods. Perhaps they also should have demonstrated a closer relationship between the research studies selected and the questions raised in the introduction to each part and the principles stated in the section on applications. Finally, there was at least one serious omission. The section on "Patterns of Interpersonal Relationships" failed to deal with the relationship between the teacher's mental health and classroom relationships.

Prior to reading the authors' preface, the reviewer concluded that the book holds unusual promise for in-service education and as a supplementary text for methods and educational psychology. He also agrees with the authors that it would be valuable as a text for an observation and participation course. He questions its use as the basic text in either methods or educational psychology. However, no single text should be expected to serve both of these courses.—MERLE M. OHLSEN, *Professor of Education, University of Illinois.*

Publications . . . in brief

Thomas M. Magoon

Guidebook for Generalists

From Campus to Career—A Guide for Generalists, 1960. Division of Employment, New York State Department of Labor, 520 Eighth Ave., New York 18, N. Y. 90 pp. $.60.

Placement officers in colleges and universities are currently confronted with an interest by prospective employers in a disproportionately high proportion of graduates in the engineering, scientific, and specialized business curriculums. This fact is of increasing concern to counselors, placement workers, and students themselves. In the midst of such a trend, this quite plush guidebook presents a refreshing change of pace. The generalists referred to are graduates in liberal arts and general business administration.

The content includes career planning strategems, orientation to what generalists in the past have done in the world of work, steps in job seeking, fields of work, jobs for generalists, and references for further reading.

The format is highly readable, making extensive use of varied colors, forms, and organization of content. A light touch (also refreshing) is given to the material as exemplified by . . . "It (the guidebook) does not give you all the answers, nor can it compete with marrying the boss's daughter (or son) as a sure-fire method of getting the job you want."

The vocational fields particularly considered include advertising, TV and radio, education, market research, publishing, social work, management, sales management, industrial relations, and personnel management. In addition, 80 entry jobs which are open to liberal arts graduates in a variety of fields are described in terms of qualifications, job duties, and possibilities for entry and advancement.

Counselors, parents, placement officers, and students would do well to digest this kind of material.

Records Retention Guide

Retention of Records—A Guide for Registrars and Admissions Officers in Collegiate Institutions, 1960. American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, Publications Office, American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Ave., Washington 6, D. C. 50 pp. $1.00.

This guidebook is the work of a committee on Office Management and Practices of AACRAO. The content represents the result of an extensive survey of institutional practices with regard to retention of admissions and registration materials. In addition it presents a survey of the legal implications of record retention and control practices. The report ends with a graphic presentation of recommended retention periods for different forms of records both for applicants who enter and for those who apply but do not enter.

Among the reported findings are such practices as the following: An overwhelming proportion of admissions records are made as permanent records. This practice is only somewhat less common for registrars' materials. As might be expected, for applicants who do not enter retention of records is much shorter with a period of two years appearing as generally modal. Microfilming is clearly an atypical practice at present.

The chapter on legal implications of record retention also represents survey findings. In this case, the survey is of existing state laws governing retention. The interstate variability is striking and suggests the need for clear understanding of state statutes as a guide to any institution's record retention practices.

While the material was developed by and for personnel of higher educational institutions, the availability of this information should be of interest to other educational systems for their own recording practices and to a wide variety of personnel workers by providing a better understanding of the recording practices of higher educational institutions with which they deal.

Mental Health Careers

Jobs and Futures in Mental Health Work, Elizabeth Ogg. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 296, 1960. Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 E. 38th St., New York 16, N. Y. 28 pp. $.25.

The author, with the cooperation of the National Institute of Mental Health, has produced another excellent brochure in the health area. The title is generally self-explanatory of the content. The following vocations are considered: psychiatry, clinical psychology, occupational therapy, psychiatric nursing, psychiatric social work. Material concerning these vocations is written in a personalized style utilizing a segment of a worker's daily experiences to provide some flavor of each discipline's role in mental health work. The center page of the pamphlet presents a chart with more factual material on each occupation covering the areas of educational requirements, costs and facilities for training, scholarships, fellowships and typical job income, and settings in which members of each vocation typically work.

The pamphlet leads off with an attempt to stimulate the reader to recognize the scope of occupations in mental health, the need for personnel, and the

importance of gaining self-knowledge to determine the appropriateness of such occupations for the individual. The pamphlet concludes with a brief view of future developments in mental health teaching, research, and service programs.

In light of the heavy current emphasis upon science as a career, it is unfortunate that the vocation of scientific research investigator is not given equal visibility with that of the service functions. Much research productivity may come from workers who have moved into these fields primarily on the basis of social service motivation. However, this writer would expect that more direct impact upon research productivity would come about through also appealing directly to scientific, investigative-orientated youth.

Medical College Admission Test

Medical College Admission Test, 1960. Psychological Corporation, 304 East 45th St., New York 17, N. Y. 24 pp.

As of July 1960, conducting of the Medical College Admission Test Program became the responsibility of the Psychological Corporation. This program is sponsored by the Association of American Medical Colleges. The booklet provides general information as to the program, examination deadlines (October 14, 1960, is the final date for receiving applications for the October 29, 1960, examination), application procedures, code numberings for medical schools and for testing centers, as well as the schedule of testing fees. The booklet concludes with a series of sample questions illustrating the test content in the four areas of verbal ability, quantitative ability, understanding of modern society, and science.

A useful resource for student personnel workers who may encounter student questions regarding the program and procedures.

Preventive Psychiatry Institute Proceedings

Recent Contributions of Biological and Psychosocial Investigations to Preventive Psychiatry, R. H. Ojemann (ed.), 1959. Department of Publications, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa. 181 pp. $2.00.

Presented here are the proceedings of the Second Institute on Preventive Psychiatry held at the State University of Iowa in the spring of 1959. The purpose and format are best stated in the editor's words: ". . . to bring together the thinking of workers in many different fields that are involved in the study of prevention to learn what the agreements and disagreements might be. Each topic was represented first through a prepared paper. After the paper was discussed by the panel as a group, the audience was invited to take part. Participants in the institute were asked to contribute to the discussion whatever they considered helpful to the extension and clarification of the basic issues."

The papers presented and their authors were: Development of the Concept of 'Creative Mental Health,' by M. Brewster Smith; Recent Investigations in Selected Aspects of the Physiological Dimensions and the Implications for Prevention, by John W. Doust; Physical Health, Mental Health and the Social Environment: Some Characteristics of Healthy and Unhealthy People, by Lawrence Hinkle, Jr.; Law as an Instrument of Mental Health in the United States and Soviet Russia, by Harold J. Berman; and Recent Studies in the Genetic Aspects of Mental Illness and Implications for Prevention, by Ralph D. Rabinovitch.

Each paper is followed by the conversational comment of panel discussants and audience participants. As in the reading of reports of such programs in the past, the reader feels he is "sitting in." Some of the points and comments are rather mundane, others quite stimulating. The array of topics is impressive, although the reader must dig into the research references to learn details involved in the investigations bearing upon preventive approaches to mental health.

Noise Hazards

Controlling Noise Hazards, Bulletin No. 207, 1959. Bureau of Labor Standards, Department of Labor. GPO, Washington 25, D. C. 6 pp. $.10.

Noise is considered in this brief pamphlet as an environmental hazard created by the nature of particular work or the setting in which the work occurs. The pamphlet covers such topics as characteristics of sound, typical occupational noise levels, harmful effects of noise, assessment of noise level, and establishing maximum sound levels. The report concludes with a consideration of eight ways of controlling noise and six references on noise characteristics, measurement, and effects upon auditory acuity.

This is one of a series of brief, nontechnical publications on environmental and chemical hazards relevant to industrial safety programs. As such the pamphlet should be an effective educational aid in sensitizing personnel to the noise hazard, its health implications, and means of coping with the problem.

A Note from the Editor

The terms of Editorial Board members are staggered so that there is an annual turnover of two members. We lose, this year, the keen understanding and thorough competence of Drs. Willard W. Blaesser and Harry W. Smallenburg. However, on recommendation of the Editorial Board the APGA Executive Council has appointed to *Journal* leadership Drs. Kenneth B. Hoyt and Donald E. Super.

Dr. Hoyt's primary field of interest is guidance and counseling in the secondary school. Although we cherish the anonymity of the Editorial Board in its function of review of manuscripts, it is quite probable that Dr. Hoyt's advice will be sought, among others, on articles evaluating guidance and counseling on the secondary level. His teaching commitments at the State University of Iowa are such, also, as to involve him in student personnel work at the college level. No man is described in a few lines, and so Dr. Hoyt's interests and competence extend to other areas as well.

To say that Dr. Super, author of *Psychology of Careers* and *Appraising Vocational Fitness*, is welcome to our task is an understatement of some magnitude. Fertile and sound theorist and creative researcher, he has enriched our field greatly. His clarifying insights, *e.g.*, the idea of the self-concept and its implementation in the world of work, have done much to set our vocational counseling house in order. We are just plain happy to have his help in the *Journal* task.

JOSEPH SAMLER

Association Activities

CARL McDANIELS, EDITOR

The Branches in Highlight

The Northern Indiana Branch

For a number of years we have carried a section entitled "Notes from Our Branches." This section relied on the information sent to the Headquarters Office from the various branches. However, not only was coverage spotty but, in many cases, due to advanced publication schedules, it was several months after meetings were held before such news appeared in the Journal. *With this and a number of succeeding issues we intend to try instead relatively ambitious write-ups of the activities of individual branches. It is hoped that this series will stimulate thinking about new activities branches can develop.*—Ed.

The Northern Indiana Branch of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, during the past year, has developed several programs outside of its regularly scheduled meetings in which it was able to be of professional service to the community.

For a number of years, the members of the Branch have felt a need for an annual program in which the parents of college-bound students and the students themselves could get together with guidance workers who would be able to answer some of their questions about going to college. In October, 1959, Dr. Martin Stamm, former Branch President and Head of the Guidance and Pupil Personnel Department of the School City of South Bend, organized two parent-centered information programs. The first program, held in the fall, was entitled "Parents Take a Look at Pre-College Admission Problems." The second, in the spring, was concerned with "Post High School Education and Training Opportunity for Skilled Man Power." Cooperating with Dr. Stamm, branch members served as speakers and contributed ideas for both programs.

Because of the success of the fall meeting, Mr. Jacob Sudermann, Administrator of Adult Education for Indiana University, contacted the Branch President and suggested a joint effort by the University and the Branch in sponsoring a College Attendance Forum for High School Seniors and their Parents. After a series of meetings, a forum was planned to consist of four evening meetings to be held in the auditorium of a local high school. The first meeting was a talk on listening and note-taking in college, followed by a lecture entitled "The College-University Experience" in which the neophyte college freshmen were required to take notes. A panel graded the work by college standards and returned it to them with comments on their note-taking ability. The second meeting was a panel discussion entitled "Study Habits, Attitudes and Skills Necessary for College Success." The third meeting tried to answer the question "What to Study in College." Four speakers discussed the following topics: (1) The Field of Study in Higher Education; (2) Selecting a Field of Study in College;

(3) Selection of a Field of Study from the Standpoint of Placement; and (4) Industry Eyes the College Graduate. In the fourth meeting the costs and "hidden costs" as well as the "sociology" of colleges were covered by guest speakers, and the students were administered the Cooperative English Test (Part C[2]) to acquaint them with their vocabulary and reading comprehension in relation to a group of entering college freshmen.

About 300 attended the forum, representing 23 school districts in Northern Indiana and Southern Michigan. One student traveled 70 miles to each meeting. From the favorable comments received, the forum was considered a success. Mr. Sudermann and a branch committee evaluated the forum, and tentative plans have been made for a bigger and better forum to be held this year.

Both the University and the Branch have learned much from cooperating in the joint effort and have provided a real service to the community. Mr. Sudermann's administrative skill was complemented by the professional know-how of the branch members so that together a job was accomplished that they could not have done separately.

The Northern Indiana Branch was originally chartered in 1940 as a branch of NVGA and in the spring of 1959 applied for and was granted an APGA charter. The current officers are: President—Robert J. Waddick, Counselor, University of Notre Dame; Vice-President—Elizabeth C. Schmidt, Counselor, John Adams High School, South Bend; and Secretary-Treasurer—Carolyn Upton, Counselor, Washington-Clay High School, South Bend.

At present the group meets three times yearly but hopes to increase the number of meetings as growth takes place. All three are dinner meetings, lasting two and one-half hours; the Branch attempts to have stimulating speakers at two of the meetings and a panel discussion at the third. The meetings are built around a central theme—last year's was "The Adolescent"—this year's will be "Interdependence of Guidance Services at the Various School Levels."

AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION

Comparison of Membership by States

1959 and 1960

	April 30, 1959	April 30, 1960
Alabama	54	120
Alaska	13	20
Arizona	90	100
Arkansas	51	75
California	666	698
Colorado	141	185
Connecticut	218	229
Delaware	56	68
District of Columbia	127	137
Florida	246	288
Georgia	84	103
Hawaii	34	41
Idaho	21	30
Illinois	570	598
Indiana	268	300
Iowa	171	220
Kansas	156	177
Kentucky	46	53
Louisiana	78	111
Maine	47	56
Maryland	278	311
Massachusetts	460	557
Michigan	632	640
Minnesota	283	323
Mississippi	28	46
Missouri	361	345
Montana	19	33
Nebraska	74	77
Nevada	10	11
New Hampshire	23	39
New Jersey	336	396
New Mexico	72	78
New York	1,500	1,625
North Carolina	102	127
North Dakota	26	62
Ohio	671	694
Oklahoma	52	64
Oregon	70	99
Pennsylvania	527	635
Rhode Island	56	66
South Carolina	36	35
South Dakota	43	62
Tennessee	87	96
Texas	384	383
Utah	59	73
Vermont	31	29
Virginia	175	219
Washington	128	152
West Virginia	46	55
Wisconsin	215	223
Wyoming	64	80
Foreign	152	167
TOTAL MEMBERSHIP	10,137	11,411

A Series on Related Professional Groups

The American Psychological Association

This article begins a series of brief descriptions of other prominent professional associations or organizations that are closely related to the work of the American Personnel and Guidance Association or of interest to the readers of this Journal.—Ed.

THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION (APA), founded in 1892 and incorporated in 1925, is the major psychological organization in the United States. With approximately 18,000 members, it includes most of the qualified psychologists in the country. The purpose of the APA is to advance psychology as a science, as a profession, and as a means of promoting human welfare. It attempts to further these objectives by holding annual meetings, publishing psychological journals, and working toward improved standards for psychological training and service. It also publishes a monthly *Employment Bulletin*, containing notices of vacancies and situations wanted, and an annual *Directory* of members.

In order to give recognition to the specialized interests of different psychologists, the APA includes 19 Divisions. Any person, after becoming a member of the APA, may apply for membership in as many Divisions as he wishes. The Divisions are:

1. Division of General Psychology
2. Division on the Teaching of Psychology
3. Division of Experimental Psychology
5. Division on Evaluation and Measurement
7. Division on Development Psychology
8. Division of Personality and Social Psychology
9. The Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues—A Division of the APA
10. Division on Esthetics
12. Division of Clinical Psychology
13. Division of Consulting Psychology
14. Division of Industrial and Business Psychology
15. Division of Educational Psychology
16. Division of School Psychologists
17. Division of Counseling Psychology
18. Division of Psychologists in Public Service
19. Division of Military Psychology
20. Division on Maturity and Old Age
21. The Society of Engineering Psychologists—A division of the APA National Council on Psychological Aspects of Disability—A Division of the APA

Each Division has its own officers and meets annually at the time and place of the APA meeting. Each has its own membership requirements, which in some cases are higher or more specialized than the requirements for election to the APA.

The annual meetings of the APA are held in the fall. An attempt is made to choose meeting sites in such a way that attendance will be convenient for members in different sections of the country at different times. The 1959 meeting was held in Cincinnati, Ohio. The 1960 meeting will be held in Chicago, Illinois, September 1–7. These meetings provide the members with an opportunity to present or hear reports of psychological research and lectures on topics of psychological interest, and to participate in formal and informal discussion groups. The research reports, lectures, and discussion groups cover varied topics of current interest within the field of psychology.

The chief governing body of the APA, the Council of Representatives, includes representatives from each of the Divisions and affiliated State Psychological Associations.

Publications. The APA publishes 12 psychological journals. They are:

- *Contemporary Psychology* (monthly)
- *The American Psychologist* (monthly)
- *Psychological Abstracts* (bimonthly)
- *Psychological Bulletin* (bimonthly)
- *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* (bimonthly)
- *Journal of Applied Psychology* (bimonthly)
- *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology* (bimonthly)
- *Journal of Consulting Psychology* (bimonthly)
- *Journal of Educational Psychology* (bimonthly)
- *Journal of Experimental Psychology* (monthly)
- *Psychological Monographs: General and Applied* (irregular)
- *Psychological Review* (bimonthly)

The APA also publishes books and pamphlets. Among some of their current titles are: *School Psychologist at Mid-Century, Psychology and Rehabilitation, Research in Psychotherapy, Psychology and Mental Health, Graduate Education in Psychology,* and *America's Psychologists.*

Membership. There are three classes of membership in the APA: Associate, Member, and Fellow. The *Associate* is in a non-voting status and must have two years of graduate study or a master's degree plus a year of experience and be engaged in full-time paid work or graduate study. To attain *Member* status a doctoral degree must be received from a graduate school of recognized standing. Properly qualified *Members* may, upon nomination by one of the Divisions and election of the Council of Representatives, become a *Fellow* of the APA.

Active Boards and Current Activities. In addition to its Policy and Planning Board and its Publications Board, the APA has three other boards which are active in the affairs of the Association. They are: The Board of Professional Affairs, The Board of Scientific Affairs, and the Education and Training Board. Some of the major ongoing activities at the present time are the evaluation of doctoral programs in psychology, the completion of a seven-volume series on the status of the scientific contributions of psychology, participation in international scientific congresses, sponsorship of conferences on scientific and professional problems, maintenance of standards for psychological services, establishment of a program of visiting scientists in psychology, and further projects.

Relationship to APGA. The two Associations, APA and APGA, have long enjoyed sound professional relationship. Before moving into its new building APGA maintained its headquarters office on property leased from APA. The two Associations have worked cooperatively on many projects. At the present time there is a free and constant flow of professional information from one association to the other on business affairs, exchange of journals, professional and ethical standards, placement activities, and other related matters. Many APGA members also hold membership in APA.

The American Psychological Association has its headquarters at 1333 16th Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

WHO'S WHO

and Where

We are eager to reflect in this column news of the professional activities and job changes of our members. Please keep us informed. Notices should be sent to the attention of the Assistant Editor.—Ed.

A. PEMBERTON JOHNSON has been appointed Director of the Counseling Center at Newark College of Engineering, Newark, New Jersey. Formerly Assistant Director, he succeeds Dr. Frank H. Lewis, who recently retired from the college.

DOUGLAS D. DILLENBECK has joined the staff of the College Entrance Examination Board in New York City as Assistant Director of Guidance Services. For the past several years, Mr. Dillenbeck has been Guidance Director at North Shore High School, Glen Head, New York.

REV. BROTHER PHILIP, O.S.F., Director of Student Personnel Services at St. Francis College, Brooklyn, New York, received the distinguished service award as "Outstanding Young Man of 1959" from the Young Men's Board of Trade, New York City Junior Chamber of Commerce, at the annual awards dinner held in the Grand Ballroom of the Biltmore Hotel in May.

CHARLES HARVEY MILEY has left his position as Chairman of the Department of Psychology and Director of Guidance Services at Howard Payne College, Brownwood, Texas, to assume the position as Dean of Students at Broward County Junior College, Fort Lauderdale, Florida.

JOSEPH W. FORDYCE has left his position in the College of Education at the University of Florida in Gainesville to accept the Presidency of the Central Florida Junior College at Ocala.

FRANK H. LEWIS has retired as Director of the Counseling Center at Newark College of Engineering, Newark, New Jersey, after 15 years with the school. Dr. Lewis joined the center as a Counselor in 1945 and served as Assistant Director until 1956, when he was appointed Director. He succeeded the center's first Director, Professor Frank N. Entwisle.

GEORGE D. WEIGEL has been appointed Acting Head of the Department of Education at Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, and assumed this position on February 1, 1960. Dr. Weigel retains his rank at the University as Professor of Education.

WILLIAM COLEMAN, of the Systems Development Corporation in California, served during the 1960 spring semester as Visiting Professor at the University of Wisconsin, Madison.

STANLEY H. FISHER has joined the staff of the American Heart Association as Rehabilitation Consultant. Dr. Fisher was formerly Counseling Psychologist at the Veterans Administration Hospital, Northport, Long Island, New York.

JOHN ODGERS of the Ohio State Department of Education left on August 1 to serve for two years as Technician Consultant in Vocational Guidance to the Ministry of Education in India.

S. NORMAN FEINGOLD, National Director of the B'nai B'rith Vocational Service, has recently assumed the Editorship of the *Counselor's Information Service*, a quarterly, annotated bibliography of current literature on educational and vocational guidance, now in its 15th year.

R. M. SCHMITZ has been named Director of Personnel for Consolidated Freightways, Menlo Park, California. Prior to joining the staff of Consolidated Freightways, Mr. Schmitz was Technical Personnel Director for the Sunbeam Corporation in Chicago.

CHARLES G. MOREHEAD, Associate Professor, Department of Occupational Information and Guidance, North Carolina State College, Raleigh, represented APGA at the inauguration of Leo Warren Jenkins as President of East Carolina College, Greenville, North Carolina, on May 13, 1960. Dr. Morehead is President of the North Carolina Personnel and Guidance Association.

From the Executive Director . . .

In many respects the new year will be a crucial one in the life of the Association and the guidance profession. As schools and colleges begin the new academic year, the National Defense Education Act will have been felt for a good 12 months. The national community, therefore, expects to see in the lives of young people some rather profound effects. These expectations undoubtedly are greater than might be wished. Yet, at the same time, the national community does have every right to anticipate improvements in the plans, developments, and personal effectiveness of young people who are growing up in our educational system.

The Executive Council meetings held late in May indicate the responsibility that the Association assumes in this crucial year. It would be a refreshing experience for any member to listen to the deliberations of the serious, devoted statesmen who form the Executive Council as they consider the important matters of APGA, particularly the nature of the professional development with which the Association is charged. One of the most important actions taken by the Council, reported in the *Guidepost* in June, is the matter of national legislation affecting guidance. It is presumed that the new Congress, convening in January, 1961, will have on its docket before it adjourns some measures affecting the extension of the National Defense Education Act. APGA, as all members should know and expect, is looked upon as the prime mover in this direction. Since the Act is very largely a guidance act, it is the responsibility of the Association to perform its part in assuring that the beneficial results of the National Defense Education Act continue and that those modifications are made which will be most valuable to the individuals in our society.

It will be very helpful if you will write to your own Congressman and tell him about any of the benefits that you have seen resulting from the National Defense Education Act. It will help our Council, through its Legislative Committee, in developing the directions for legislation, if you will send to me any suggestions that you have for modifications of the NDEA.

Over the past several years the Executive Council has sought to improve and increase the professional contributions of the Association and to enable it to fulfill the role in which other groups in this society see APGA, namely, as one association representative recently said, "A major professional association and the spokesman for guidance in this country." You will be glad to know that the Assistant Director for Professional Relations, Carl McDaniels, has had an article on career planning appear in the journal of the American Pharmaceutical Association. I mention this because it is a healthy sign of the direction that the Executive Council wishes the Association to take, and it is the first time that a professional article has appeared by any member of the Headquarters staff, other than the Executive Director.

Our Membership Committee is expecting a marked increase in membership this year. There is particular concern that only a relatively small proportion of those who are counselors in schools are members of APGA. It is hoped and certainly expected that during this year a substantially larger number of school counselors will become members of their professional Association. The increase in the American School Counselor Association last year was approximately one thousand; this year the increase should be double that amount. It must be, if the school counselors are to be represented as fully as they should in the professional world through APGA.

The Membership Directory, giving the professional affiliation of each member, will be produced by a different process this year. Data processing methods will be utilized and thereby will save a very large amount

of time and manual work. The cost will be no higher and the processing will be much faster and much more efficient. It is hoped that when you receive your forms you will be able to fill them out and return them promptly to obviate the necessity of follow-up. The 1960–1962 Directory should be a listing of persons who are members of and deeply interested in the professional world of guidance and personnel work.

In keeping with the changes that naturally occur over a period of time, the Council approved a year ago a study of the Headquarters organization and space utilization. That study has been made by Dr. Peter Haines of the staff of Michigan State University who is a specialist in organization and administration. He has made a number of very helpful recommendations and several of these are already being put into effect. This study of the Headquarters operation is intended to bear out the intent of the Council that not only shall the Association's aims be high in meeting its responsibilities in the profession, but also that it shall organize itself in such a way that it can utilize most effectively the personnel assigned to the ongoing daily work of the Association to assure that the "workings" of the Association are always devoted to those things that are most conducive to the best development of APGA.

The October issue of the *Journal* will contain a removable insert in the back, listing the officers and committees for APGA and the Divisions for 1960–1961. It has been desired to give the members a full list of officers and committees each year and this is the first time that has been possible. It is hoped that it will be useful to you.

Two deep satisfactions of opening the doors on a new academic year are anticipation of the achievements of a new generation and reflection on the continuous accomplishments of their predecessors. In this spirit, Emeritus Membership was established by APGA. It is an honor to present the names of those to whom Emeritus Membership in APGA was voted at the April and May, 1960, meetings of the Executive Council (the Division is noted in which the Emeritus Membership is held).

REX B. CUNLIFFE, 2 Prescott St., Edison, New Jersey (NVGA)

J. ANTHONY HUMPHREYS, 5817 Blackstone Ave., Chicago 37, Illinois (NVGA)

NORMAN LUFBORROW, 3112 Milford Ave., Baltimore, Maryland (NVGA)

HERMIONE K. SOLOMON, 333 West 57th St., New York 19, New York (NVGA)

EMILY L. STOGDILL, Psychological Consultant to Students, Ohio State University, Columbus 10, Ohio (ACPA)

KARL P. ZERFOSS, 1526 East 59th St., Chicago 37, Illinois (NVGA)

Those previously voted Emeritus Membership were:

FRANCES M. CAMP, Director, Educational Placement Service, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa (ACPA)

HELEN M. VOORHEES, 151 George St., Brunswick, New Jersey (ACPA)

As you start your new year, those of us here would like to take this occasion to wish you a most successful and rewarding year.
—ARTHUR A. HITCHCOCK

To Qualify for Emeritus Membership

Emeritus Membership is open to applicants who meet the following conditions and upon vote of the Executive Council.

1. Have attained the age of sixty-five.
2. Have been a member of one or more Divisions or their antecedents of the Association for at least twenty years.

Persons requesting Emeritus Membership status should write to the Executive Director.

AMERICAN BOARD PREPARES NEW DIRECTORY

In January, 1961, the American Board on Professional Standards in Vocational Counseling, Inc., will publish its *1960–1962 Directory of Vocational Counseling Services,* listing those agencies which have applied for evaluation of their vocational counseling services and have met the standards established by this APGA Board.

New Members of A.P.G.A.

The following is a list[1] of new members who have joined the American Personnel and Guidance Association between January 15, 1960, and May 15, 1960.

A

ABBOTT, MARGARET H 6682 Fifth Ave, N, St Petersburg, Fla. Speech Ther & Couns, Pinellas Co Pub Sch. 3,6A
ABRAMS, DOROTHY I 230 Fifth St, Scotia 2, N.Y. Guid Couns. DAP
ABRAMS, JOHN 2312 Kenilworth Rd, Ardmore, Pa. Stu, Univ Michigan. 3
ADACHI, SEIICHI C Orange Co Commun Coll, Middletown, N.Y. 3
ADAIR, J. G. Dakota Wesleyan Univ, Mitchell, S. Dak. DAP
ADAMS, ELBERT L Box 601, Maple, Tex. DAP
AHERN, PAUL F 43 Lawsbrook Rd, West Concord, Mass. Stu. 3
AILOR, EDGAR I S Ward Ave, Caruthersville, Mo. Stu. 3
ALLEN, CELIA B 29 N Sixth St, Cheney, Wash. Asst Prof Educ & Psych, Eastern Washington Coll. 4
ALLISON, CHARLES E 1005 Rachel St, Johnstown, Pa. Guid Dir, Ferndale-Dale Jt Sch. 3,5
ALTHEIM, ALEX 114 84 225 St, Cambria Hts, N.Y. Mgr, Jt Union HS Proj, NYS Empl Serv. 3
AMROD, PAUL J 6 Stuart Ave, Chateaugay, N.Y. Dir Guid, Chateaugay Cen Sch. 3
ANDERSON, JUSTIN V 116 Couts St, Weatherford, Tex. 3
ANDERSON, WILLIAM C 341 W Michigan Ave, Kalamazoo, Mich. Grad Stu. 3
ANGSTADT, LAURA J 144 50 38th Ave, Flushing 54, N.Y. Guid Couns, Westbury HS. 3
ANTHONY, JOSEPHINE I 146 B Tompkins St, Cortland, N.Y. English Tchr, Cortland Cen HS. 3
APPUHN, JACK 3201 Farnam St, Omaha 1, Nebr. Selection & Placemt Mgr, Fairmont Foods Co. 3
AMRUNG, PRACHOOMSOOK ARCHAVA Chulalongkorn Univ, Bangkok, Thailand. Acting Dean, Faculty of Educ. 4
ARUNDEL, REV EUSEBIUS, OFM St Bernardine of Siena Coll, Loudonville, N.Y. Dir Guid & Asst Prof Educ. 4
ASHBY, NORMAN D 344 S Park, Iowa City, Iowa. Stu, State Univ of Iowa. 3
ASHMORE, CLIFFORD M 517 East Ave, NE, Atlanta 12, Ga. Couns, David T. Howard HS. DAP
ASHWORTH, JOHN 270 Madison, AICPA, New York 16, N.Y. Pub Rels Assoc, Amer Inst of CPA. 3
ASSEFAW, TEKA Ministry of Educ, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. DAP
AUSTIN, C GREY Univ Mich, Lane Hall, Ann Arbor, Mich. Coord Relig Affairs & Lect in Psych. DAP
AYERS, DOROTHY B 3208 W Clinton, Tampa 4, Fla. Couns, Fla State Empl Serv. 3
AYERS, MARGARET D 821 S Market, Kokomo, Ind. DAP

B

BAEZA, HARRIET B 1326 Monterey Blvd, St Petersburg 4, Fla. Case Wrkr, Pinella Co Bd Pub Instr. 3
BAGSTER-COLLINS, RICHARD D Springfield Coll, Box 30, Springfield, Mass. Grad Stu. DAP
BAILEY, RUTH C 2623½ Neil Ave, Columbus 2, Ohio. International Stu Advis, Ohio State Univ. 1
BAIRD, DAVID T 1048 Ninth St, Charleston, Ill. Acting Dean Men, Eastern Illinois Univ. 3
BAKER, ANNA R 428 N Mt Pleasant, Lancaster, Ohio. Tchr, Lancaster Pub Sch. 5A
BAKER, DALLAS 700 McCullough St, San Benito, Tex. Couns, San Benito Jr HS. 5
BAKER, ISOBEL 476 Squirrel Rd, Auburn Hts, Mich. Tchr-Couns, Avondale HS. 3

[1] Style and abbreviations used in this listing were taken from the *1958-1960 Director of Members*.

BAMFORD, ELIZABETH R 1109 Annin, Detroit 3, Mich. Stu, Michigan State Univ. 3
BANAGHAN, WILLIAM F 26 Forsythe, Godfrey, Ill. Supv Stu Affairs & Asst Prof Guid, Southern Illinois Univ. 1,3
BARCLAY, JAMES Idaho State Coll, Boise, Idaho. Dir, Tstng & Couns. 4
BARKER, BARBARA J 2090 Broadview, Eugene, Ore. Tchr-Couns, S Eugene HS. 3
BARLOW, MARIE T 625 Richards Rd, Wayne, Pa. Couns, Jr HS, Pottstown, Pa. DAP
BARNES, ELAINE M Montgomery Co Bd Educ, Rockville, Md. Dir, Dept Educ Services. DAP
BARNEY, ORVIN P 5210 N Kerby Ave, Portland, Ore. Couns, Jefferson HS. 5
BARNHILL, BETTIE L Lee Garden, Bristol, Va. Stu. 3
BARRON, SARAH J 1417 Ross, Columbia, Mo. Psychomet, Univ Missouri. 1
BARROW, LT COL SAM H 460 D Gulick Drive, Fort Monroe, Va. US Army Offcr & Stu. 3
BATES, CATHERINE W 514 W 122d St, 603, New York 27, N.Y. Dean Women, William Jewell Coll. 3
BATTAGLIOLI, JOSEPH J 242 Summer Ave, Reading, Mass. Guid Couns, Somerville HS. DAP
BAUDHUIN, PATRICK L 6825 N 76th St, Milwaukee 23, Wis. Tchr, Granville HS. 3
BAUMHOFF, WALTER H Indiana Univ, Trees Cen, Bloomington, Ind. Stu. 1S
BEAMISH, JEROME J 65 Manor Dr, Apt 14A, Newark 6, N. J. 3P
BECK, WESLEY W, JR 512 W 122d St, New York 27, N.Y. Stu, Teachers Coll, Columbia Univ. 3
BEEMAN, CECILE A 98 MacDougall Pl, Syracuse, N.Y. DAP
BEMISS, HOWARD D 48 Brook Rd, Falmouth, Maine. Guid Couns, Scarborough HS. 3
BENGTSON, LUOLA B 1760 E 23rd Ave, Eugene, Ore. Dean Girls, Woodrow Wilson Jr HS. 3
BERKSTRESSER, BARBARA A 143 Race St, Middletown, Pa. 3,6A
BERNSTEIN, BRUCE H 30 Lafayette Ave, Brooklyn 17, N.Y. Guid Dir, Brooklyn Acad. 3A,5
BEST, JOHN H Box 52, Chapel Hill, N.C. Stu, Univ North Carolina. 1S
BETHEA, JOHN B PO Box 1927, Montgomery, Ala. Chief, Spec Services, Alabama State Empl Serv. 3
BIBB, JOHN J, JR 302 E Spring St, Alexandria, Va. Stu. 3
BIESUZ, MARY R Box 741, Export, Pa. Guid Couns, Gateway Sr HS. 3
BILLOW, DORIS I 518 Clayton Ave, Waynesboro, Pa. Stu. 3
BISHOP, OLIVE 102 40 187th St, Hollis 23, N.Y. Asst Exec Secy, Amer Nurses Assn, Inc. 3A
BLACK, DOCK F, JR International Paper Co, So Kraft Div, Mobile, Ala. 3
BLACK, JOHN S Box 92, Cresco, Pa. DAP
BLOUNT, MARGARET D 636 Harbor Rd, Metedeconk, N.J. Asst Dir Guid, Monmouth Coll. 1
BODEWIG, ELEANOR S 9765 N Martindale, Detroit 4, Mich. 1
BOLMEIER, ORA J 90 A Hill, Veronia, Ore. Dean Girls, Veronia Union HS. 5
BOLOTIN, LEON 243 S Pugh St, State College, Pa. Stu, Penn State Univ. 5A
BONANNO, PHYLLIS K 233 Mt Prospect Ave, Newark 4, N.J. Tech Placemt Dir, Effective Empl Agency. 3
BOOTH, DOROTHY B Box 98, Williamsburg, Ky. Asst Dean Women, Cumberland Coll. 1
BOROS, DOROTHY K 2857 Oak Grove Pl, Toledo 13, Ohio. Guid Couns, Rogers HS. 3A,5
BOWERS, ROYAL H PO Box 585, Stillwater, Okla. Dir Couns Servs, Oklahoma State Univ. 3
BOWMAN, BRUCE B Veterans Ave, Newport, Vt. 3,5A
BOYCHUCK, DANIEL 136 Longview Ave, Penndel, Pa. Employee Benefits & Suggestion Admin, RCA. 3
BOZARTH, JAMES O 1013 Cedar St, Yankton, S. Dak. Grad Stu, Univ South Dakota. DAP
BRAATZ, MARCUS W 6061 E 28th St, Tucson, Ariz. Grad Stu, Univ Arizona. 5A

BRACKMAN, JEAN 40 Oliver Rd, Cincinnati 15, Ohio. 1
BRADLEY, SR ROSE Box 214, Wailuku, Maui, Hawaii. Asst Prin, St Anthony Coll. 3A
BRADLICH, HENRY W 412½ Jones St, Eveleth, Minn. DAP
BRAND, MELVIN T 5024 Whitaker Ave, Philadelphia 24, Pa. Substitute Tchr, Philadelphia Sch. 3
BRATTON, DANIEL L Adelphi Coll, West Hall, Garden City N.Y. Coord Housing & Dir Men's Residence. 1
BRAUNSTEIN, ANN 160 24 Normal Rd, Jamaica 32, N.Y. Dean Girls, Andrew Jackson HS. 5
BREEN, LELWYN C Univ Alaska, Box 515, College, Alaska. Asst Prof. DAP
BRICKELL, HELEN M Bronxville Sr Sch, Bronxville, N.Y. 3A
BRIGHT, NORMAN 14 Cambridge Ave, Dayton 6, Ohio. 5
BRINKMAN, RUTH E 531 Fourth Ave, Aurora, Ill. Grad Stu, Univ Wisconsin. 3
BRITSON, W J 105½ W Grant, Marshalltown, Iowa. Couns, Marshalltown Commun Sch Dist. 5
BROADFOOT, JEANETTE Har-Brack HS, Natrona Hts, Pa. Guid Couns. 3,5
BRONNER, JOAN A RR 1, Storrs, Conn. Stu. 3
BROSTOFF, SEYMOUR M 416 Oakland Ave, Cedarhurst, Long Island, N.Y. Assoc Prof Educ, Brooklyn Coll. 2,3A,4,5
BROWN, BARBARA L 41 160th Ct, St Petersburg, Fla. Tchr-Couns, Northeast HS. DAP
BROWN, BERYL E Kent State Univ, Prentice, Kent, Ohio. Asst Res Couns. 4
BROWN, CHARLES A 1910 McLean St, Aliquippa, Pa. Guid Couns, Aliquippa HS. 3A,5
BROWN, ERVIN A, III Box 542, Wright Quad, Bloomington, Ind. Stu, Indiana Univ. 1S
BROWN, LYLE C 50 W Main St, Holcomb, N.Y. Guid Dir, Bloomfield Cen Sch. DAP
BROWN, NANCY L 11 Oakdale Rd, Malden 48, Mass. DAP
BROWN, PATRICIA A RR 2, Box 3, Clayton, Ind. Stu. 1S
BROWNLEE, LEONARD J, JR 1605 Hartley Ct, Columbia, Mo. Stu. 6A
BULLARD, MAURICE L 333 N Sixth St, Corvallis, Ore. Dir Guid, Corvallis Pub Sch. DAP
BUMPAS, SAM E Rm 309, AEA Bldg, Little Rock, Ark. Stu. 6A
BUNCH, HERBERT L 1614½ Indiana Ave, New Castle, Ind. Voc Couns, New Castle State Hosp. 3
BURGESS, JOHN I 1290 Commercial St, Weymouth 89, Mass. Grad Stu, Boston Univ. 3
BURNS, WILLIAM J Trenton State Coll, Trenton 5, N.J. Dir Stu Activities. 1
BUSER, ROBERT L 49 Maple Ave, Terre Haute, Ind. Dir Guid, Lab Sch, Indiana State Tchrs Coll. 3A,5
BUTCHAR, JOHN S 3853 Lindell, No 205, St Louis 8, Mo. Couns, Voc Couns Serv Greater St Louis. 3A,6A
BUXTON, DAVID R 318 E 17th Ave, Columbus 1, Ohio. Grad Stu, Ohio State Univ. DAP

C

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WASHINGTON FLASHES

Transmitted by Max F. Baer

YOUTH AND WORK THROUGHOUT WORLD

Youth population skyrocketing: Employment problems of youth throughout world are highlighted in report on YOUTH AND WORK by Director-General of International Labor Office. Over-all estimates suggest that between 1955 and 1970 there may be increase of nearly a third in child population (5 to 14 year olds) of the world. This means little short of 200 million more children. Expected rates of increase in various regions are strikingly different: 36 to 46 per cent in Africa, South America, and Asia; 22 to 25 per cent in North America, Oceania, and the USSR; and in Europe, less than 1 per cent. Between 1955 and 1970 world's youth population (15 to 19 years old) is also expected to increase by nearly a third. It will grow fastest in North America and Oceania (by more than 50 per cent); somewhat more slowly (30 to 45 per cent) in Africa, Asia, and South America; still more slowly in Europe (some 20 per cent); and slowest of all in USSR.

Children in labor force: In Australia, North America, Western Europe, Japan, and New Zealand, working children make up 1 per cent or less of total labor force, according to recent census results; in Southern Europe, percentage is higher, some 3 to 5 per cent; in much of Latin America and in some Asian countries, from 2 to 10 per cent; and in certain countries in Middle East and elsewhere still higher, over 10 per cent. Two basic difficulties in abolishing child labor are family poverty and lack of schools. In some countries the mere pittance earned by working children is indispensable supplement to family income. Barely half of world's school-age children are in school; and the great mass of those not at school live in less developed countries where difficulties include lack of funds, buildings, and trained teachers.

Youth in labor force: Percentages of total labor force composed of young workers under age of 20 for some countries are as follows: United Arab Republic, Egyptian Region, 20; Federal Republic of Germany, 15; Italy, 15; Japan, 12; Great Britain, 10; United States, 6. Data available for U. S. and Great Britain show steady decline in both countries during first half of this century—from 14 to 6 per cent in U. S. and from 20 to 10 per cent in Great Britain. There are appreciable differences by sex. In

Brazil, for example, 21 per cent of total male labor force was made up of workers under 20, while corresponding percentage was 38 for female labor force; in Canada, figures were 8 and 17 respectively; in Federal Republic of Germany, 11 and 18; and in United States, 6 and 9.

PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT FOR WOMEN

New publication: Women's Bureau of U. S. Department of Labor has published 53-page report on PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT FOR WOMEN. You can get it for 30 cents from Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. According to this report, about 15 per cent of all workers were employed part-time in 1950, while in 1958 proportion had climbed to 20 per cent. Here are some causes for increase. Trade and service industries—typically areas of high part-time employment—are employing somewhat larger proportion of all workers today. In addition, individual industries are hiring increased proportions of part-time workers. Over one-fourth of all wage and salaried workers in nonagricultural industries were employed part-time in 1958, in contrast to about one-fifth for 1950. Entry of large numbers of young people and women into labor force has also been important factor in increase in part-time employment. Work of less than 35 hours per week is considered part-time.

Women in part-time employment: Number of women part-time workers increased by 47 per cent from 1950 to 1958, while women working full-time showed only 15 per cent increase. Virtually all of this growth in female part-time labor force has occurred since 1954. During 1958, almost three-fifths of all part-time workers were women, whereas they constituted slightly less than a third of full-time labor force.

Where they work: Many women work part-time as sales clerks in retail stores, as waitresses in eating and drinking places, as practical nurses in health services, as beauty operators in personal service establishments, and as private household workers.

In addition, a number of women from professional occupations—such as teaching, nursing and librarianship—work part-time in educational and health services.

Public administration—federal, state and local—employs a sizeable number of women part-time workers. Those on part-time schedules include such occupational groups as public officials, clerical workers (including postal workers), protective service workers (policewomen), and some operatives.

A large number of women work part-time in agriculture. However, the great majority are unpaid family workers.

Manufacturing industries show some part-time employment of women, most of whom work as operatives. However, many work part-time for economic reasons rather than choice.

Emotional Problems of Gifted Students

AMONG THE MANY patterns of college life deserving classification and study is that of the gifted student whose performance lags behind his aptitude. The problems bearing on such a student's behavior may not in themselves be unique, but his reactions to common problems tend to separate him from other students of different intellectual endowments. The easy judgment, unhappily too common to faculty members, that reference to personal and emotional problems is merely a shield for failure avoids a grave situation by denying its existence. Reluctance to investigate and, consequently, to discriminate personal problems leads to the summary attitude expressed in, "Why coddle the unfit? These students are just not college material; they should never have been admitted." The implications of such comments demand examination.

Study Population

How does the superior student react to emotional problems? To what extent is his potential achievement modified by emotional problems? What kinds of personal problems are most likely to beset the superior student? In an attempt to answer these questions for one college, the present survey is offered. It is based upon the records of all Brooklyn College students of high academic promise who came for personal counseling during the academic years 1956–1957 and 1958–1959. The criteria for inclusion are: (1) high scholastic aptitude as evidenced by the attainment of entrance examination scores which placed the student at or above the 65th percentile in his class at Brooklyn College in academic aptitude, or by graduation with honors; (2) referral of the student for personal counseling because of emotional problems; (3) termination of attendance at the College before the fall of 1959.

The group under study totaled 308 students. Of these, 232 had graduated and 76 had either withdrawn or had been dismissed for poor scholarship. Of the 232 graduates, 100, or slightly more than 43 per cent, ranked at the time of admission in the top one-third of their class in academic aptitude. Among this 100, 57 ranked in the top one-fifth of their class, 30 in the top tenth, and 5 in the top one-hundredth of their class. (See Tables 1 and 2 below).

TABLE 1

Comparison of Selected Group with Total Group, Entrance Examinations Scores Brooklyn College Norms

	Whole Group	*Test scores 65%ile or higher*	*Per cent of total with high score*
Graduated	232	100	43
Not in attendance	76	23	30
TOTAL	308	123	40

TABLE 2

Entrance Test Scores of 100 Graduates Brooklyn College Norms

Percentile rating	*Number in group*
65–79	43
80–89	27
90–98	25
99–100	5

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GLADYS H. WATSON

Of the 76 who had not graduated, but who were no longer in attendance, 23, or about 30 per cent, were in the top one-third of their class at entrance. Sixteen of these 23 had been dismissed for poor scholarship or had withdrawn under an academic deficit. Of the remaining seven, three had left college because of a serious psychiatric condition, one had transferred to another college, one had married, and two had given no reason for their withdrawal. These seven are not included in the study.

Three distinct groups emerged from the total, an honors group, a middle group undistinguished by either excellence or failure, and a low performance group.

The honors group contains 25 students classified as high scoring and 10 others whose entrance scores were unavailable or below the criterion, but who had graduated with honors. The middle group contains 46 students. The low performance group contains 45 students. Twenty-nine of these graduated in spite of academic difficulties ranging from limited probation to the danger of temporary suspension, to actual dismissal from the College for poor scholarship. Twenty-one students had been dismissed or had withdrawn because of poor scholarship. Of these, five had been readmitted with non-matriculated status, had earned their way back to matriculation and eventual graduation.

Family Background

For the group as a whole, family background seems to represent a cross section of the College population. In 40 per cent of the families, both parents were born abroad; in 40 per cent both parents were born in the United States; in 16 per cent the father alone and in 4 per cent the mother alone was foreign born. It may be of interest to note that of the 128 foreign born parents, 106 came from Iron Curtain countries, and nine others from Germany or Austria. Occupations of the fathers similarly represent a cross section of the College. Nineteen are professional men, 27 own their own businesses, 29 are white-collar workers, 38 are skilled workmen, and 13 semi-skilled.

If the family background of each subgroup is studied independently a somewhat different picture emerges. It now appears that 51 per cent of those who graduated with honors had both parents born abroad, that 46 per cent of those who had academic difficulty had both parents born in the United States. In both groups the largest number of fathers were skilled workers, but in the honors group only 6 per cent of the fathers were professional men while in the low performance group, 22 per cent were in that class. On the whole the fathers in the low performance group were of a higher occupational status than those of the honors group. (See TABLES 3 and 4.)

A rather striking sex difference appears.

TABLE 3

Comparison among Honors, Average, and Low Performance Students
Birthplace of Parents

Parents Born	*Honors*	*%*	*Average*	*%*	*Low Performance*	*%*	*Total*
Both in U.S.	9	26	17	37	21	46	47
Father U.S., mother non-U.S.	2	6	3	7	3	7	8
Mother U.S., father non-U.S.	6	17	9	19	7	16	22
Neither U.S.	18	51	17	37	14	31	49
TOTAL	35	100	46	100	45	100	126

TABLE 4

Comparison among Honors, Average, and Low Performance Students Paternal Occupation

Father's Occupation	*Honors*	*%*	*Average*	*%*	*Low Performance*	*%*	*Total*
Professional	2	6	7	15	10	22	19
Business, managerial	4	11	14	30	9	20	27
White collar	9	26	12	26	8	18	29
Skilled worker	14	40	9	19	15	33	38
Semi-skilled	6	17	4	9	3	7	13

Of the 35 honors students, 23, or nearly two-thirds, are women; of the low performance group, 32, or more than two-thirds, are men. (See TABLE 5.)

The majority of students come from two-child families, and family position appears to have relatively little effect on scholastic achievement. For both the honors and the low performance groups, life is equally difficult whether one is first or last born. The exception may be in the average group, where the oldest child seems to be in a somewhat favored position.

Time of Referral

It has sometimes been suggested that counseling during the first two years of college life will so prepare a student that he will need little or no help during the final two years. For this group at least, that suggestion seems not to be true. Seventy-six or 60 per cent of the referrals were made during the last two years of college. Almost a third of all referrals occurred during the junior year (TABLE 6). If we take seriously the notion that one of the functions of the liberal arts college is to enable the student to know himself, it seems reasonable to suppose that the more advanced student might be more aware of questions about his full identity, than the freshman or the sophomore. A large part of college teaching is designed to raise just such questions. Many, probably the majority of students, can find answers within themselves or in the process of free discussion with their peers in and out of the classroom. A minority, and this apparently includes some of our most gifted students, have more difficulty and feel the need for some individual counseling in this area. In *The Student and Mental Health* it is noted that in liberal arts colleges where instruction is individualized and where students are encouraged to question their values, identity crises occur more frequently than in larger more impersonal colleges [*1*]. In the same book, one of the student participants comments, "It appears to me that the 10 or 20 per cent of the students seen in the college mental health clinic are perhaps, the most fortunate students in the college,

TABLE 5

Sex Distribution in Honors, Average, and Low Performance Groups

Sex	*Honors*	*Average*	*Low Performance*	*Total*
Male	12	19	32	63
Female	23	27	13	63
TOTAL	35	46	45	126

TABLE 6

Class Status at Time of Referral: Honors, Average, and Low Performance Groups

Class	*Honors*	*Average*	*Low Performance*	*Total*
Freshman	3	9	13	25
Sophomore	7	11	10	28
Junior	15	15	15	45
Senior	10	11	7	28
TOTAL	35	46	45	126

because college has disturbed them enough to pull the rug out from under their feet [4]."

In a large number of instances the student had first asked for career counseling but had soon discovered that his questions were not so much "What shall I do?" "What opportunities are there for people with my qualifications?" "How shall I prepare for a given profession?" as "Who am I?" "What kind of a person am I?" There is certainly a place for vocational counseling of the pragmatic information-giving type, counseling which will help to answer questions of the first kind. But to confuse this with counseling which is concerned with helping a young person discover his identity in the world is to try to answer the wrong question at the wrong time, never helpful to students nor rewarding to counselors. The choice of a career can only be made wisely after the student has answered the primary questions about himself. Career counseling is tangential in such instances, and this fact should be clearly recognized by both student and counselor.

Scholarship Record

In a group selected for high academic potential, graduation with honors would be expected. Actually of the 100 graduates of known high capability, only 25 earned honors. When we remember that 30 in the group were in the top 10 per cent of their class, the number is disappointingly small. Twenty-four graduated *cum laude,* nine *magna cum laude,* and two *summa cum laude.* Departmental honors were earned by 17; five in Humanities, four in Social Science, four in Natural Science, and five in Education. Among graduation awards were two National Science Foundation Fellowships, one Woodrow Wilson Award, one Fulbright Research Grant, and one Regents College Teaching Fellowship. On the other hand, among the 100 graduates with known high entrance scores, 24 had scholarship difficulties ranging from "danger of dismissal" to "plus probation." An additional five were actually dismissed for poor scholarship, but had earned their way back into college and to graduation.

Presenting Problems: the Honors Group

The composite picture of the honors group shows a tense, driven individual with a compulsive need to achieve which excludes almost everything else. He has few or no friends, seems unable to relate to anyone, and feels valued only in proportion to his ability to bring home high grades. Fear tends to be his dominant emotion; fear of failure, fear of water, fear of meeting his peers. There is frequently a notation of schizoid tendencies. The important parent is likely to be the father, who is seen as stern, demanding, often distant, sometimes uninterested except for the constant pressure for high achievement. Parents in general are seen as over-protective and infantilizing. For both men and women the area of sex is a fearful and largely unexplored one. For a number, the problem of identity has never been recognized. The comment of the counselor, "You are a man, you now have to make your own life, your own choices" may come as a revelation.

In general, the honors group tends to be fearful, obedient, to have introjected the demands of the parents, to have repressed many of their natural cravings. This is in marked contrast to the low achievement group which tends to be resistant, rebellious, and "acting-out." Since two-thirds of the first group are women and of the second, men, it is possible that there is here a sex difference which reflects differing cultural expectations for men and women. The expression of aggression is considered more acceptable in a boy than in a girl. Female rebellion is generally more quickly and more decisively repressed. Girls tend to be more docile than boys, possibly more able to accept the demands of parents as reasonable and justified, more willing to work very hard for parental approval. Moreover, the demands on the girl are not so great as those on the boy. Of course she must not disgrace the family by failure, but equally of course she will eventually marry and be supported by her husband. The boy has

no such refuge. From the beginning it is clear that he must support a family. Often there is also the expectation that he will do better than his father. When this is coupled with the unspoken admonition not to undermine his father's authority by surpassing him, there seems to be no way out of the dilemma. At home the boy must be passive and obedient; outside the home he must be aggressive and dominating. The girl does not face so many conflicting demands. It is possible, even praiseworthy, for her to be submissive and passive both at home and abroad; there is no requirement that she equal or surpass her father. The girl, allowed less freedom than the boy, may be more influenced by parental values; the boy, spending more time outside the home, may be more responsive to peer values. The girl tries to fulfill the feminine role as she sees it by obedience and study; the boy tries to fulfill the masculine role as he perceives it by rebellion and refusal to conform.

In this study, honors students come largely from homes in which both parents were born abroad, in which the father is a skilled workman. Low performance students come largely from homes in which both parents were born in the United States and in which the father is a business or professional man. Possibly where both parents are foreign born there is a greater strength and cohesiveness in cultural background than there is among the first generation Americans. Father may be distant, stern, dominating; mother meek and submissive, but everyone accepts that pattern as the right and normal one; although as the child moves through high school and college, he may come to question the eternal fitness of this arrangement. In those families where both parents were born in the United States, father, especially if he is a successful business or professional man, may be trying to perpetuate the old pattern in opposition to mother. The fact that neither may be conscious of the problem may lead to the destructive in-fighting which is disastrous to the children.

The cultural conflict includes more than the struggle for the emancipation of women and a more democratic way of living. There is also the question of religion, for this predominantly Jewish group a very serious one. As has often been pointed out, the child who rejects his parent may reject all that his parent stands for. This may mean rejection of the parent's religion. As one young man said, "I'm not Jewish! I refuse to be Jewish! Oh, yes, I know my parents are Jewish, but I'm talking about the Jewish religion. I simply *am not Jewish!* (But if not Jewish, what am I?)" Or there may be the demand of the child to choose his own friends, his own marriage partner, even though friends and mate are of a religion different from the parent.

The cultural gap between the lives of the parents and the lives that the children as college graduates will lead is sometimes so wide that it is not surprising that the young people quail before it. One young man said, "But it's presumptuous for me to think of being a college teacher! My father can't read or write, can hardly speak English. And I should be a college teacher? That might be for my son, not for me." Another, who had graduated *summa cum laude,* with departmental honors, decided to be a post office clerk. It looked safer and easier than trying to become a professional man. Many others will settle for lives of quiet mediocrity. This does not mean that they will not become bitter frustrated men who may vent their frustrations on their families. It may mean that their sons, like so many of the young men in this sample, will regard their fathers as poor weaklings, people to be despised and pitied.

Margaret Mead has observed that "College presents a hazard . . . the alienation of one's children from one's own way of life [3]." Too often the parents do not realize this until it is too late. The fear of this alienation is often back of the unspoken demand not to surpass the parent. It may find expression in a mother's command to her daughter not to "go out with a Ph.D. because he would be too good for you." Whether it is expressed or not, the fear is often with the parent as with the child.

The danger is perhaps greater for this very gifted group, or perhaps they are more aware of it. The nearer they are to graduation, the more frightening is the prospect of leaving the well-known and safe world of the parents and venturing into the unknown and frightening world which may be theirs.

The Average Group

This is a group with a wide variety of problems of relationships with parents, problems of growing up, of discovering one's own identity, of relationships with authority figures. Fear, anxiety, depression, hostility are all reported. Men in the group tend to feel inadequate, to fear they will not be able to fulfill the masculine role in society. Three of them have had acute psychotic episodes. Both men and women report difficulty in relating to people, inability to make decisions, jealous of siblings. There is some evidence of retarded heterosexual development. One man in this group, and one woman in the honors group, were distressed at their resort to alcohol as an escape. Those with parents born in the United States generally report that their mothers are over-demanding, over-protective. Depression, anxiety, hostility are characteristic, together with feelings of worthlessness, of lack of a sense of personal identity. Those with one or both parents foreign born generally report that they have distant and domineering fathers, and that they have considerable difficulty with authority relationships.

Standing between the honors and the low achievement group in academic achievement, they occupy this relative position in other respects. So far as birthplace of parents and occupation of father are concerned, they are nearer to the low achievement group. They also tend to show more hostility and aggression and less fear. Here again they resemble the low achievers. Perhaps this is not surprising in view of the fact that for young people of this degree of ability their record, while not one of failure, does not correspond to their potential.

Students in this group are more concerned with problems of personal identity and less with failure to relate to others than are those in either of the other groups. Many of them are student leaders, some of them very successful ones who have won awards for campus citizenship. Possibly they are trying to atone for academic failure by developing interpersonal relationships; possibly they have refused to compete with siblings in the academic area and have chosen another field of interest. Whatever the reason for choice, they tend to be dissatisfied with their achievements and to be searching for a better way of living than they have found.

Here, as in the honors group, women predominate, 27 to 19.

The Low Achievement Group

These students often come from home situations that are described as brutalizing, over-powering, extremely destructive. Parents may openly reject the child or may more subtly reject him by over-protecting or making too great demands on him. In some instances there is no father in the home, only a malicious, hostile mother, often one who because of her own failures hates all men. It is not clear why more boys than girls should come from homes like this. Possibly it is a result of admissions policy, though it seems more likely that girls from this kind of vicious background never get to college. They have not the strength to survive in an academic world. Possibly too, the girls in families like this are more often forced to leave school and go to work, since after all, "the education of a woman is not important." Perhaps more of them escape into marriage. Whatever the reason, fewer of them come to Brooklyn College.

A few students in this group have reacted by retreat and withdrawal. They find safety in hiding. They find it difficult to speak in class. They avoid competition by refusing to try. It is more bearable to such a student to fail in an examination because he did not study, than to study and get a poor grade; more bearable to have no friends, than to try to find a friend and risk

a rebuff. The men tend to be effeminate, passive, dependent. In a sense, these students are committed to failure; they await it with the passivity of the defeated.

The other, and larger, part of this group has reacted with rebellion and resistance. They are committed to the opposition. Their rebellion is as overdetermined as the failure of the first group. They are compelled to resist, to see all authority, even their own, if they are student teachers, as dangerous, inimical, destructive. They find it difficult, if not impossible, to suppose that an adult might be friendly, might have any reason other than hostility or innate perversity for the requests or demands that he makes. Ironically, it is from this group that some of our best known student leaders come. It is satisfying to be aggressive and defiant in class, but infinitely more so to act out one's rebellion on a larger stage. With guidance and help such students may become winners of gold or silver keys for campus citizenship; without such guidance, they may become disruptive forces. Instances of both kinds are to be found in this sample.

No matter which course they choose, the young people in this group are unsure of themselves and are seeking to discover their identity. They are trying out possible roles for the world of adults. If the young man who is trying failure as a way of life is accepted by others as a failure, he may adopt that role permanently. If the young woman who adopts resistance and opposition as a role is accepted by others and labelled a rebel, she may carry that role through life. The one who refuses to grow up, who clings to childhood as the only safe refuge, may spend his life seeking protection and security.

Here are to be found the anxious and depressed young people who unconsciously seek their own destruction, sometimes to punish parents, sometimes to agree despairingly with what they feel to be the adult judgment of their worthlessness. It is here that the largest number of frank psychoses are found. In a group of 45, three have been hospitalized, and four others are said to be possibly or probably pre-psychotic. Others who are clearly too neurotic to be treated on campus need to be helped to seek off-campus therapy. Still others, not yet fixed in their roles, have enough ego strength and resiliency so that even short-term counseling can help them to adopt new and more satisfying ways of living. Those who fear failure so desperately can be helped to succeed, modestly at first, but so that they can have a taste of success instead of the bitter one of failure. Those who must rebel can be helped to forget the straw men and to use their rebellion for constructive purposes. Both can be helped to realize that they are no longer helpless children in a world of angry giants, but men and women in a world of other men and women who have difficulties much like their own; and that even parents and teachers are only people.

Summary and Conclusions

An analysis has been made of the records of 126 students who, having been referred for personal counseling, had entrance examination scores or achievement records that placed them in the top one-third of their class, and who have terminated their work at the College. Of 232 who had been referred for counseling and who had graduated, 110 or nearly 48 per cent were in the high ability group as defined by this study. An additional 16 students who had been dismissed or had withdrawn from college because of serious academic difficulty were in the high ability group. In the group of 126, 27 per cent graduated with honors, 37 per cent graduated without distinction, and 36 per cent had academic difficulties, in some cases so serious that they were dismissed before graduation.

Two-thirds of the honors group were women; two-thirds of the low achievement group were men. Descent from foreign-born parents of the working class seemed to be associated with the achievement of honors; even as descent from United States born parents of the professional or business class seemed to be associated with low achievement. The honors students tended to be compulsive, driven people, with few

or no satisfactory interpersonal relationships. The low achievers tended to be rebellious and resistant, unable to achieve well in any area. The average group tended to be more concerned about personal identity than about interpersonal relationships, to be less driven and repressed than the honors group, somewhat less rebellious than the low achievers. For the men, there is some evidence that the presence of a dominating father is accompanied by rebellion against authority, and by expressions of hostility and aggression; and that the presence of a driving dominating mother is attended by feelings of personal worthlessness and hopelessness.

There is no evidence that the students in the group were using the presence of emotional problems as an excuse for not doing well in college work, nor is there evidence that they were not "college material." There is considerable evidence that distress interferes with, if it does not prevent, effective study; and that moreover, distress is detrimental to happy interpersonal relationships and to achieving an effective maturity.

In the words of Malleson,

> The university has to take the growing senior boy and act upon him in such a way that he matures into a well-balanced man . . . . To do this, the university must employ a variety of means far wider than those of the lecture room . . . . Personal problems, inherent in the process of growing up, inhibit the student from making full use of the university. Hence, counseling him about his personal difficulties and helping him over his periods of distress is as germane to the whole process of education as lectures, seminars, preparing essays, etc. [2].

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CHANGING TIMES REPRINT FOR COLLEGE-BOUND

Making Plans for College?, a booklet of seven articles reprinted from *Changing Times,* the Kiplinger Magazine, provides information for the college-bound high school student. The contents includes Will You Get into a Good College?, Colleges with Room for Students, How about Two-Year Colleges?, How to Pay for College, Straight Talk about Scholarships, School Guidance Programs/What & Why, and What's Going on in Schools & Colleges. Copies of the reprint are available for $.25 from Changing Times Reprint Service, 1729 H Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. (Quantity rates are available.)

The Critical Ninth Grade:

Vocational Choice or Vocational Exploration

DONALD E. SUPER

NEARLY 15 years ago I made a speech in Nova Scotia, subsequently published in a Canadian political science journal [7], entitled "Vocational Guidance: Instrument of Social Policy." It was not exactly an earthshaking paper, and it did not shake the earth—in fact, it went quite unnoticed. One reason, I believe, was that neither statesmen nor educators were interested, in those post-war years, in the relationships of vocational guidance and national policy: in particular, we counselors were interested in individuals, in people for their own sakes, and national policy was for the most of us simply a backdrop against which the individual, with whatever help we might give him, must make his adjustment.

Today, with another threat to democracy undisposed of and ever imminent, manpower specialists keep us constantly reminded that, in this era of persistent personnel shortages, the proper flow of human material into the labor market depends in part on what we do and how we do it. The conservation of human resources, the early identification of talent, and the guidance of the gifted, these are the orders of the day among educators and the passwords among the politicians.

Since this interest in what happens to human material means greater recognition of the work of counselors and support for guidance projects, it is in many ways welcome. But, since it results in the laying down of guidelines for guidance by persons who are often more versed in manning problems than in human development, it also creates problems and causes concern among the *cognoscenti* that guidance may deteriorate into direction.

Early Identification for What?

As a contribution to bringing these problems into focus, I should like to ask: conservation, early identification, guidance, *for what?*

Early adolescence is often regarded as a period when it is appropriate to expect the making of the first life career choices, and educational offerings are so organized as to require the typical beginning ninth grader to make certain prevocational choices in the form of algebra or general mathematics, a foreign language or no foreign language, agriculture or no agriculture, etc. In some school systems, notably in those of our largest cities, the ninth and tenth grade choices are virtually choices of prevocational tracks, along which the pupil moves progressively nearer to one type of vocational goal and continuously further away from other possible vocational goals—this is what Eli Ginzberg means by the irreversibility of vocational choices [4]. In other school systems the comprehensive high school may make it easier for the pupil to change pathways (they tend to be that rather than tracks in such schools), but changing from the industrial arts course to the college preparatory course in order to become an engineer rather than a mechanic, for example, involves some loss of time since making up ninth grade algebra in tenth grade throws schedules out of gear.

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This article was read as a paper at the spring, 1960, Institute of the Vocational Advisory Service of New York.

It is a small wonder, then, that the early identification of talent means, to many people, the making of ninth grade decisions concerning ultimate occupational goals so that the proper educational program may be planned in high school.

Is the making of long-range vocational choices *possible* (let us try to answer this question before we consider its wisdom) at this stage of adolescent development? It is partly because of interest in questions of this type that we now have not only a psychology of occupations with data on occupational ability patterns, but also a psychology of careers with data on the emergence of vocational choices and the making of vocational adjustments.

The Development of Aptitudes

As is now generally known, the USES and several of the state employment services, including that in New York, have been actively engaged in studying the development of vocational aptitudes during the high school years, and last summer the Bureau of Employment Security published a technical report entitled *GATB Norms for Ninth and Tenth Graders* [2].[1] This pamphlet examines the relative validities of ninth and 12th grade GATB scores for predicting grades in high school and in college. Central to our question it also considers the data on the stability of GATB scores from ninth to 12th grades. It does this in order to determine the possibility of using ninth grade scores to identify adult occupational ability patterns at the time at which the first prevocational choices are required by our schools. This is not the place to go into detail, but it is important to note that the 9–12 stability coefficients for the nine GATB factors ranged from 0.64 to 0.77 with a median of 0.74, whereas the 12–12 (three-month-interval) stability coefficients ranged from 0.67 to 0.87 with a median of 0.81. The differences tend to be statistically significant: in other words, there are some changes of the positions of individuals in the rank order over the four years of high school, more such changes than during the last year of high school. But it should also be noted that these stability coefficients are substantial and the differences are small enough to be of little practical significance: in most cases one can use ninth grade GATB scores, with due caution, to predict adult scores and hence to compare the aptitudes of a beginning high school student with those of men and women in various fields of occupational endeavor. This must be done *with caution*, as there are two kinds of error variance instead of the usual one: there is error in predicting adult from ninth grade status, as well as error in predicting occupational status from test scores. Thus errors are compounded. Please note too, that I have said that ninth grade scores can be used cautiously, *in most cases.* There are some exceptions, and these are bothersome, for there is no way of knowing, from the GATB scores (nor from any other index at this time), which of the ninth graders who take the tests are the late bloomers whose aptitude patterns will change radically and unexpectedly in shape and in elevation, nor which are the cases of arrested development whose patterns will not change in the ways which characterize the majority of normal adolescents. The users of ninth grade GATB scores for the guidance of vocational choice, if such there are to be, must therefore be paragons of caution well versed in developmental psychology as well as in vocational psychometrics.

The Development of Interests

But aptitudes, we all know, are not the only psychological determinants of vocational choice. Interests play a part too, and Ralph Berdie has demonstrated that they play a more significant part in choice determination among high school seniors going to college than do aptitudes [*1*]. The developmental psychology of vocational interests is, fortunately, older than that of vocational aptitudes (except, of course, for intelligence). Data on Strong's Vocational

[1] Also presented in an article in our September, 1960, issue.—Ed.

Interest Blank were collected by the California Adolescent Growth Study and analyzed largely by Carter [3]. These and later studies show that interests begin to manifest themselves in adult vocational form in early adolescence, but change some in ways which are systematic for groups but still unpredictable for individuals during the high school years [6]. Studies with the Kuder [8] have more recently brought out the fact that the nature of the interest inventory makes a difference, for Kuder scores change more during the high school years than do Strong scores, a fact which seems not to have had much impact as yet on most counselors in the high schools. The user of vocational interest inventories in the ninth grade, like the user of vocational aptitude tests at that stage, must therefore be well versed in the psychology of adolescent vocational development as well as in vocational psychometrics.

The Development of Self-Knowledge

In a democratic society, self-determination is a generally agreed upon desideratum —self-determination, that is, based upon understanding of relevant facts and consideration of the effects of alternative lines of action upon society as well as upon the individual. How well do early adolescents understand themselves, how well do they know the aptitudes, interests, values, and personality traits which characterize them and which bear on their vocational futures? This question has been investigated by O'Hara and Tiedeman [5] with high school students in Boston as their subjects. They got students in each of the four years of high school to rate themselves on testable characteristics, gave them appropriate tests, and ascertained the amount of agreement between self-rated and tested characteristics. The discrepancies tended to be sizable in the ninth grade, tended to decrease as the students reached higher grades, were still appreciable in 12th grade, and were more important for some characteristics than for others. Expressed as correlation coefficients, the agreement between self-estimated and tested aptitudes in the ninth grade was of the order of 0.45, in 12th grade 0.69; for interests (Kuder-tested) the two correlations were 0.69 and 0.83; for socioeconomic status, 0.42 and 0.35. Clearly, the self-knowledge of ninth graders is not negligible, but it leaves a great deal to be desired as a basis for vocational decision making. Despite considerable improvement in some areas during the four years of high school it is still far from perfect in 12th grade.

The Development of Attitudes

If people are to make choices, they must have attitudes, an orientation toward life in general, toward careers in particular, and toward their present life stage especially, which facilitate the consideration of alternatives and the making of the required decisions. Working on the Career Pattern Study of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation at Teachers College, my colleagues and I have addressed ourselves to this question of readiness to make choices in a monograph entitled *The Vocational Maturity of Ninth Grade Boys* [9]. Using school records, some 12 hours of testing, and four hours of electronically recorded interviews as our sources of data, we developed indices of vocational maturity in the ninth grade. The data are much too unorthodox and complex to describe here, so I must satisfy myself, and hope that you will be satisfied, with the statement that we found that our typical ninth grade boys, in a typical small city high school, with a typical guidance program, were at a stage of vocational development which is characterized by readiness to consider problems of prevocational and vocational choice but also by a general lack of readiness to make vocational choices. Ninth graders are clearly in an exploratory stage, not in a decision-making stage, of vocational development. It would be worthwhile to document this statement further, not so much to prove that it is correct, as to drive home the full import of the fact: ninth graders are ready to look into things, to try themselves out, but have not developed to a point at which

it is reasonable or desirable to expect them to commit themselves to a vocation.

Early Identification for Exploration

Now let us return to the question which asked at the beginning of this paper: early identification for what? The answer which this quick survey of developmental vocational psychology provides to this question is, clearly, not early identification for vocational choice or selection, but early identification for vocational exploration. Since the aptitudes, interests, self-knowledge, and attitudes of ninth graders are still developing and changing, some of them only slightly but some of them considerably; since the cases in which important changes do take place cannot, in the present state of our knowledge of vocational development, be identified in the ninth grade; and since ninth graders tend to be psychologically ready for vocational exploration but not for vocational choice; the identification of vocational potential in ninth graders should be designed to help with the making of decisions for vocational exploration rather than decisions of vocational preparation. Vocational exploration involves a commitment to find out about oneself and about some aspect or segment of the world of work, whereas vocational preparation involves a commitment to pursue a line of endeavor deemed to be appropriate. Ninth graders tend to be ready for the former, unready for the latter.

This fact has implications for the organization of education in the high school: it should facilitate exploration, should not require a commitment as to field although it might as to level (i.e., college or non-college), and should not be occupationally preparatory in any narrow sense, at least in the first years of high school. This fact also has implications for vocational guidance in the ninth grade: it should aim to ascertain what alternatives (in the plural, in most instances) might best be explored, to help the pupil to find and utilize appropriate explorations. The objective should be to help him to be ready to make the kinds of career decisions which society will expect him to make as he leaves high school. These, too, let us recognize, will often be exploratory rather than definitive.

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PROCEEDINGS OF REHABILITATION WORKSHOP AVAILABLE

New Horizons for Workshops for the Handicapped is the title of a summary of the proceedings of a training institute for rehabilitation workshop directors held in February, 1960, by Los Angeles State College in cooperation with the California Conference of Workshops for the Handicapped. Copies of the summary may be obtained by writing to Joseph Stubbins, Coordinator, Rehabilitation Counseling Program, Los Angeles State College, 5151 State College Drive, Los Angeles 32, California.

Relationship between Leadership Participation in College and after College

RONALD W. ROSKENS

MOST COLLEGE authorities agree that the lasting benefits of a college education extend considerably beyond training in the traditional academic disciplines. It is widely held that the impact of this experience is manifested in the student's character traits, his attitudes, his value as a citizen, and in many other non-intellectual aspects of his behavior. It is also widely recognized that extra-curricular activities may make valuable contributions to these non-academic areas of development.

Evidence of the strength of these beliefs is revealed by many actions of college administrators. Heavy budgetary allotments are requested for student unions and activity centers. Supervisory personnel are retained solely to supervise recreational and extra-curricular activities. The sheer number of approved activities attests to the high regard in which such activities are held. The assumption is made, implicitly or explicitly, that such participation will provide effective training for, and will be reflected by, similar involvement in later life, and participation in college leadership activities is therefore generally encouraged.

Method of Investigation

Statements of the values of leadership participation are seldom substantiated by systematic research evidence. The major purpose of this investigation was to contribute factual data in this area. The study dealt with the relationship between measures of extra-curricular leadership in college and leadership in community and professional activities in later life.

A questionnaire was developed to elicit information on the post-college activities and occupational status of graduates of the State University of Iowa, College of Liberal Arts. Respondents were asked to summarize the positions of responsibility and leadership that they had held in community organizations, the honors and awards they had received, and organizations to which they belonged. Responses were recorded for the following categories: occupational and professional, civic affairs, fraternal and service, social and recreational, military and religious. Information was gathered on the nature of the respondent's present occupation, the principal duties or activities of his position, and his approximate yearly salary.

The questionnaire concluded with the following open-ended questions: (a) Characterize the role or contribution of university life in preparing you to accept responsibilities in leadership following graduation. (b) In what ways do you think the *total* program of the State University of Iowa *could be* improved in preparing students to assume roles of leadership subsequent to graduation? (c) Was there any single event, person, organization, or class in your university experience that had outstanding influence upon your life? Please comment.

After final adjustments resulting from experimental tryouts were made, questionnaires and letters of explanation signed by the Dean of the College of Liberal Arts were mailed to 1,622 individuals. Following a post card reminder and a second mailing of the questionnaires to non-respondents completed forms were eventually received from

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This article summarizes a doctoral investigation completed at the State University of Iowa under the direction of Professors A. N. Hieronymus and J. B. Stroud. The writer wishes to acknowledge the considerable aid he received from them and also from Dean Dewey B. Stuit and Professor Leonard Feldt.

896 men. This number represents a return of slightly more than 55 per cent.

Although this unquestionably represents a somewhat biased sample of the graduates of the College of Liberal Arts, the extent of such biases cannot readily be determined. Returns by year were as follows:

Years of Grad.	*No. Sent*	*No. Ret.*	*% Ret.*
1922 and 1923	259	149	58
1932 and 1933	318	190	60
1942 and 1943	400	232	58
1952 and 1953	645	325	50
TOTAL	1622	896	55

Data on variables relative to college performance were obtained from University records and yearbooks. These variables included curriculum (major), size of high school, grade-point average, and leadership performance. Data on post-college leadership activities were obtained by questionnaire.

A major problem in this study was the development of instruments by which the extent of participation in college activities and adult activities might be assessed. It seemed especially important to develop a scoring scale which would weight various positions in proportion to their importance. To accomplish this, the psychological scaling method known as the method of equal-appearing intervals was employed. Judges, chosen on the basis of their composite knowledge of and experience with student activities, served as a jury for this scaling procedure. Fifty organizational positions were chosen as representative of the gamut of student leadership activity.

The number of required discriminations was reduced to this quantity because of the relatedness or parallelism of various student activities. Judges were instructed to sort the 50 stimuli, each of which was printed on a three-by-five card, into seven categories on the basis of an estimation of the degree of leadership required for the successful fulfillment of the given role.

This scaling procedure resulted in a seven-point scale in which representative activities were assigned weights indicative of their relative importance. Some of the positions and their scale values were as follows: student council president, 7.0; social fraternity president, 5.8; student council member, 5.2; dormitory council member, 3.2; and yearbook staff member, 3.0.

The same method was utilized in scaling post-college leadership activities. One hundred titles representative of the range of community or professional leadership activities were selected for this scale. The list was reduced from its original size by eliminating closely parallel positions. Twenty community and professional leaders, identified by virtue of their experiential background, served as the judges. Their composite judgments established a rating of 5.1 for "city council member" and 3.7 for "county school board member," to cite two examples.

The degree of inter-judge agreement was assessed by the inter-quartile range of the numerical weights assigned to each activity. For 42 of the 50 positions of college leadership and 85 of the 100 positions of post-college leadership the inter-quartile range of judgments was one scale value or less. The largest inter-quartile range for any item was 1.5 and this occurred only once. Though this index is, perhaps, a rather crude one, it does suggest that the judges evidenced fairly substantial agreement in their evaluations of the importance of the positions they were asked to scale.

The scale values for various positions of leadership were used to determine college and post-college leadership scores for each subject. Total leadership scores and part scores for selected subsets of activities were developed in both the college and post-college categories. College leadership part scores were: (1) Academic (leadership in departmental organizations, honoraries, etc.); (2) Social (leadership in social fraternities, student union, and the like); and (3) Special Interest, which included athletics, band, chorus and kindred activities.

Part scores derived for post-college leadership activities were: (1) Occupational and Military; (2) Political and Civic; (3) Fraternal and Religious; (4) Social and Recreational. The part score for each of these

categories was obtained by adding the scale values for activities included in the respective category.

The major summary statistics consisted of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. These were computed separately for the four samples identified in terms of graduation period.

Findings

If the effect of college leadership training is as marked as most educators seem to feel, it is not unreasonable to expect at least a moderate relationship between college and post-college performance. A number of chance factors as, for example, absence of leadership opportunities in small towns, unusual family obligations, or racial or religious biases, undoubtedly operate to condition the cause and effect relationship. It would be difficult, however, to justify extensive training for leadership if the ultimate relationship, even with the chance factors, were not borne out to at least a moderate extent.

The findings concerning the relationship between the two major variables—college and post-college leadership—appear to be consistent with these expectations. Correlation coefficients tended to be quite substantial for all four graduation groups, as shown in TABLE 1.

TABLE 1

Correlations Between College and Post-College Leadership Total Scores

Group	*r*
1922–1923	0.37
1932–1933	0.49
1942–1943	0.63
1952–1953	0.47

The variability in strength of the relationship among the groups gives rise to speculation. A possible explanation is suggested by the statements of a considerable number of the individuals in the earlier two graduating groups that the demands of financial self-support restricted their participation in college activities. Members of the '52–'53 group, on the other hand, had not yet had a sufficient amount of time to establish long records of post-college leadership. Such limitations on the extent of participation would tend to lower both the mean and the standard deviation for the college leadership scores for these groups. The reduced variability would, in turn, tend to lower the correlations for these groups.

Again, it must be borne in mind that a positive relationship does not demonstrate cause and effect. It is conceivable, for example, that individuals who ranked high on both variables did so because of the effects of home training, previous leadership training in high school, personality traits, etc. These factors and others, such as the persistence of proclivities toward leadership, must be thoroughly investigated before the contributions of the college leadership program to leadership training may be assessed. At this point it seems reasonable that experiences of a leadership nature in college are at least in part responsible for similar activity in which individuals engage subsequent to graduation.

In investigating the nature of post-college leadership it was found that correlations among the various post-college leadership part scores were lower than anticipated, averaging in the neighborhood of 0.20. Nor was specific post-college leadership behavior predictable with a high degree of accuracy from differentiated college leadership activity. Those who tend to participate in one type of activity are not necessarily active in other types of activity. The concept of the general leader in all types of activities was not borne out by the results of this study. In general, those with high leadership scores were not leaders in all realms of activity, but rather earned leadership status along more narrowly defined lines of activity.

Shown in TABLE 2 are zero-order and multiple correlations involving post-college leadership and five predictor variables. The multiple R's are very little higher than the unweighted r's between composite college leadership scores and post-college leadership, although the differences are significant at the 5 per cent level except in the case of Group 2.

TABLE 2

Zero-Order and Multiple Correlations of Parent Occupational Status, College Grade-Point Average, and College Leadership Part Scores with Post-College Leadership Total Score

Group	Parent Occupational Status	College GPA	Part Scores: Academic	Social	Special Interest	CL* vs. P-CL	Multiple Correlations
1922–1923	0.00	0.10	0.25	0.27	0.23	0.37	0.37
1932–1933	0.22	−0.03	0.21	0.43	0.30	0.49	0.55
1942–1943	0.15	0.06	0.16	0.56	0.41	0.63	0.67
1952–1953	0.04	0.17	0.20	0.32	0.31	0.47	0.49

* This column shows the correlational values obtained between college leadership total scores and post-college leadership total scores.

With respect to the strength of the relationship between college leadership part scores and post-college leadership, the Social part score appears to be somewhat more predictive than Special Interest but not markedly so (TABLE 2). The obtained r's for both were somewhat higher than those between the Academic category and post-college leadership. It would appear that post-college leadership can be more accurately predicted from participation in college organizations which are not particularly academic in nature.

Albeit that grade-point average achieved in college was found to bear very little relationship to post-college leadership in this investigation, nevertheless academic ability has apparently become an increasingly important concomitant of college leadership through the years. The magnitude of the correlation coefficients, involving the variables grade-point average and college leadership, increased progressively as shown in TABLE 3. Also reported in TABLE 3 are the fairly low relationships between college leadership and occupational status ratings of the subjects, and financial success (income) subsequent to graduation.

Among other factors investigated in connection with leadership training were high school size, highest degree attained, and curriculum classification (major). These data indicated that college leaders come in approximately proportionate numbers from the various sized high schools. It also appears that post-college leaders are not identifiable by the college major which they choose, nor the highest degree they attain.

In their answers to the final three questions of the questionnaire, most subjects affirmed the value of the experiences which extra-curricular life provided. Whether the student's adolescent background had been a rural one with highly restricted opportunity for social contacts or an urban one rich in opportunities for social activity, he expressed belief in the benefits accruing from participation in college activities. Of course, not all of the respondents wholeheartedly endorsed the University's program. Approximately 14 per cent of the comments were neutral, and seven per cent were negative.

Some indicated that, as students, they had lacked financial resources which necessitated their spending most out-of-class time earning expenses, thus prohibiting participation in activities. Others expressed insecurity in the University community which differed considerably from the small town in which they had grown up. Still others felt that activity participation *per se* was of little

TABLE 3

Correlations Between College Leadership and the Variables Grade-Point Average, Occupational Status, and Income

Group	College GPA	Post College Occupational Status (1958)	Post-College Income (1958)
1922–1923	0.16	0.14	0.28
1932–1933	0.26	0.26	0.25
1942–1943	0.40	0.22	0.20
1952–1953	0.59	0.21	0.07

value in preparation for leadership responsibility.

Suggestions for improvement in the University's leadership program stressed three themes: (a) the need for a marked increase in personal contact between faculty and students in leadership activities; (b) the need for a stronger program of vocational guidance; and (c) the need for increased emphasis on communication skills, particularly those of oral expression. It seems significant that these needs bear on issues as basic as the nature of the instructional program and the definition of the responsibilities of faculty members.

The final question, concerning the major college influences on the student's life, elicited a variety of responses. Foremost among these, however, was mention of outstanding teachers. In many cases vivid impressions of these men were still retained as much as 30 years after the last student-teacher contact. The effect of expert teaching and the influence of forceful teaching personalities, even at the undergraduate level in a large university, was clearly demonstrated. It would thus seem highly desirable that faculty members capable of producing such an effect should be encouraged to multiply their influence through appropriate participation in student activities. An increase in such personal contact between faculty and student, which would be consistent with respondent recommendations for improving the leadership program, would undoubtedly result in substantial increase in the lasting benefits of University leadership training.

STATEMENT OUTLINES WOMEN'S EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

The Commission on the Education of Women of the American Council on Education published in April, 1960, a statement entitled "The Span of a Woman's Life and Learning." This statement emphasizes the need for more and better counseling and guidance of students to insure that women have the education and preparation necessary for the role they play in today's society. Pointing out that not enough young people are aware that the role of the homemaker can be combined with other creative endeavors and responsibilities, the statement stresses the need for women to continue their education and the need for more information on the education and job opportunities available to women. Copies of this statement are available without charge from the Commission on the Education of Women, American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION FOR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL YOUTH

A Symposium

ALBERT S. THOMPSON, FRANK M. FLETCHER, JR., DUGALD S. ARBUCKLE, and BLANCHE B. PAULSON

Introduction

HELEN WOOD

THE NEED for occupational information oriented toward the interests and problems of junior high school youth has been brought to the attention of the Department of Labor repeatedly during the past several years. The preparation of occupational outlook materials for use in these grades was recommended, for example, by the Meeting on Education and Employment held by the Secretary of Labor with educators in 1957. More recently, the importance of increased guidance services in the lower grades has been emphasized by the surveys of school dropouts conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics [*1*], as well as by other major studies.

The Bureau's occupational outlook publications have, so far, been designed primarily for use in guidance of senior high school and post-high school students. In planning an extension of this program to meet the needs of younger boys and girls, the assistance of four leaders of the guidance profession was enlisted. The consultants were each asked to prepare a report indicating the extent of need for occupational outlook materials aimed at junior high school use, the objectives to be served by such materials, and the content and manner of presentation which would make them most useful. Each consultant held a conference of persons in his geographic area having a close acquaintance with young people of junior high school age. The reports submitted to the Bureau reflected the results of these conferences, in addition to the consultants' own expert knowledge.

The four papers which follow were originally presented by the consultants as a panel discussion at APGA's 1959 Convention. They do not include the specific recommendations made to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Several occupational outlook pamphlets for junior high school use are now being prepared in accordance with the recommendations received. After these first pamphlets are issued—which we hope will be before the end of the current school year—we shall look forward to receiving comments and suggestions regarding them from many junior high school counselors to guide us in further development of the new series.

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This symposium was held at the APGA Convention in Cleveland, Ohio, March 26, 1959.

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Developmental Stage and Developmental Needs at the Junior High School Level

ALBERT S. THOMPSON

BEFORE making extensive curricular plans or before developing institutional materials for a given group, one necessarily takes a close look at the group—its characteristics and needs. In this case, we should ask ourselves "What is the level of vocational development at the junior high school level? What needs would be served by occupational materials?"

It is impossible, of course, to characterize the "typical" junior high student. In the first place, the 12 to 14 year old (the modal age of junior high school students) exhibits both rapid change and wide variation in rate of growth. Secondly, the junior high population includes a wide socio-economic and age range—from the accelerated 10- or 11-year-old to the academically retarded 16-year-old and from the college bound to the youth marking time until old enough to go to work. Thirdly, there are sex differences resulting from the earlier maturation of the girls, on the one hand, and their restricted range of career goals (including homemaking) on the other.

It is obvious, therefore, that the stage of social-vocational-educational development of the junior high student varies widely and that for occupational orientation a variety of approaches and materials is needed. It is useful, however, to think of the modal 75 per cent and to ask what can be expected of this group in the way of attitudes, expectations, level of maturation, etc., particularly as related to vocational development and occupational orientation. Following, therefore, are generalized descriptions of the junior high school student, particularly the 12- to 14-year-old developing in the modal way.[1]

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Personal-Social Development

1. He experiments with various roles in attempts to find status; he desires to excel in some activity, to demonstrate his competence to his peers.

2. He is accumulating many facts about larger relationships (groups) but he is frequently not ready to assimilate and integrate these facts.

3. He is frequently able to plan on a higher level than that on which he can execute.

4. New hobbies develop, some of which last into adulthood.

5. He is interested in and curious about the past, but more so in the dramatic aspects of his present culture—airplanes, sputniks, movie stars, etc.

6. He is more interested in the concrete, the active, than in the abstract or ideational, particularly in literature.

Vocational Development

The developing patterns of personal and social maturation described above have vocational and educational manifestations. Desire for independence and drive for self-realization lead to tryout and reality testing in vocationally significant activities and to concern for career goals. Following are relevant aspects of the junior high student's vocational development:

1. Junior high students exhibit a fairly wide range of vocational development: some are ready for work, having already sampled work activities through after-school jobs; some are thinking about long-term plans; most are thinking more about educational

[1]Sources for the following section include: (a) Faculty of the University School, How Children Develop. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1946; (b) Examiners Manual for the SRA Youth Inventory. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1949.

than vocational problems; some are uninterested or unable to concern themselves with career planning. The modal stage is probably characterized by "thinking about and planning for high school careers" so far as future planning is concerned.

2. The stage of vocational planning is more in terms of "what to do after high school" than in the details of occupational choice and planning. The following normative data from the standardizations of the SRA Youth Inventory are revealing. Of the eight basic pattern areas covered by the inventory, the section dealing with "after high school" was checked more frequently than the others. Of the sample of ninth graders in the study:

58 per cent checked: "For what work am I best suited?"

58 per cent checked: "How much ability do I actually have?"

49 per cent checked: "What courses will be most valuable to me later on?"

47 per cent checked: "What shall I do after high school?"

45 per cent checked: "Am I likely to succeed in the work I do when I leave high school?"

44 per cent checked: "What are my real interests?"

42 per cent checked: "What career shall I pursue?"

41 per cent checked: "How do I go about finding a job?"

39 per cent checked: "What jobs are open to high school graduates?"

28 per cent checked: "What training do different vocations require?"

27 per cent checked: "What are the opportunities in different fields?"

27 per cent checked: "How will the draft affect me?"

24 per cent checked "What fields are overcrowded?"

22 per cent checked: "I have no work experience."

One can generalize from the above frequencies that the vocational problems are broad in nature, still somewhat remote, and not primarily in terms of specific jobs or occupations.

3. The vocational roles are only a few of those being explored—others of more immediate relevance to the junior high student are school, physical, social, and sexual.

4. The junior high period is one of vocational exploration rather than decision. Preferences are expressed but choices are tentative or, even if perceived by the junior high student as firm, turn out to be temporary. It is a period in which, according to Eli Ginzberg [1], the vocational choices are influenced more by the immediate interests of the individual than by careful consideration of abilities or reality testing of the choices. His choices may be serious, in the sense that he feels an involvement, but are frequently ephemeral or unwise. He is more concerned with self-realization through challenging or exploratory experiences than with planned reality testing of occupational goals.

5. From the Career Pattern Study [3] comes significant information concerning the nature and characteristics of the vocational development of junior high boys. Of chief interest here was the finding, with respect to specificity of information about the preferred occupation, that the ninth-grade boys in the study had more information about the requirements for their preferred occupations than about the duties, conditions of work, or opportunities. Also of interest was the fact that the vocationally mature ninth-grade boy tended to make active use of sources of occupational information, including the reading of books and pamphlets about occupations as well as consulting with others and participating in vocationally relevant activities.

The following summarizing statement from a Career Pattern Study report [2] may be helpful in obtaining a picture of the stage of vocational development of the ninth-grade boy:

In summary, vocational maturity in ninth-grade boys thus appears to consist of behavior which might be characterized as preparation for vocational choice, of orientation attitudes and activities. It is goal-directed behavior, in which the subject looks ahead, considers what the future may hold for him, and engages in thinking, planning, and actions which may help him meet the future. The specific goal may not be clear—in fact, in grade nine, the nature of the occupational goal does not appear to be significant. The important fact is that the individual recognize the possibility of goals and the desirability of planning for them.

Vocational maturity in the ninth grade does not appear to involve having consistent, clear-cut, or realistic vocational preferences or interests, nor of having had independent work experience. It is not, at this stage, goal-attainment, in the sense of having preferences which are consistent with each other or with the realities of the self or of the occupational world, nor in the sense of having begun to make a place for oneself in the work world. Vocational maturity in ninth graders is shown, not by where they have arrived vocationally, but by how they are thinking about goals, and what they are doing about reaching them.

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Objectives of Occupational Information for Junior High School Youth

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THE PURPOSE of this paper is to present some objectives of occupational information for junior high school youth, along with certain theoretical foundations for such objectives. It is assumed that vocational adjustment is a long-range developmental process and that occupational information is potentially a significant stimulator in this process.

First, we must accept the idea that young people differ widely, not only in ability and physical development but also in interests, values, and needs. There is room for increased emphasis on these differences in educational practice.

Nevertheless, one can generalize that by the seventh grade the stage of the future has been partially set, with the stage properties still in relatively crude form. Detail is lacking and the junior high school period is critical in the process of starting to fill in the detail. The properties in the forepart of the stage represent the individual, and the backdrop represents the perspective of the future. By the seventh grade the backdrop and the other stage properties are in varying degrees of evolvement and compatibility with reality. The role of occupational information is primarily to aid in completion of the backdrop—a process which continues throughout life. During this period the scope or breadth of the backdrop may be severely limited or extended with varying degrees of realism or compatibility with the other stage properties.

Nature of Occupational Information and Means of Presentation

It is obvious that not all occupations are appropriate nor of potential interest to all persons. Today's youth will be tomorrow's labor force—employed in occupations ranging from the most unskilled laboring jobs to administrative and professional positions, with the large majority in jobs below the professional level.

Although any one school system may not have a complete cross section of youth, most junior high schools have a wide representation of ability levels and interests represented in varying proportions. Hence, the needs of all must be met.

The junior high school age is not a time for refined occupational decisions but a time for exploratory tentative decisions and a few important decisions. These latter de-

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cisions deal with which general curricula to pursue in high school, *e.g.*, college preparatory versus technical training, etc. Even though these decisions are not occupationally specific, they can have major limiting effects on later occupational possibilities.

The general goal of an occupational information program at the junior high school level, then, is one of encouraging the exploratory process to as wide a range of opportunities as is feasible within the limits of each individual's self-concept.

The question is raised as to what types of experience boys and girls in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades will respond. This paper is primarily concerned with the nature of experiences that derive out of formally presented materials. Such materials can be leaflets, books, film strips, cartoons, etc. Presumably the material must have the following characteristics:

1. It must have meaning to the pupil, which necessitates previous or concurrent learning.
2. The material must be challenging or attract attention.
3. The material should encourage a feasible behavioral sequence to follow. Such may be in the form of discussion, individual activity, further reading, etc.

The material should be presented in a situation which allows for and encourages the behavioral sequence to follow. For example, material related to the area of accounting might be presented best immediately preceding or concurrent with a situation where those pupils who desire to do so may participate in some activity such as auditing the accounts for a school club or social function.

Individual differences must be taken into account. It would be the rare occasion in which every pupil would respond equally or even respond to any degree. If only one pupil in a class should respond to a particular experience, this could be well worth while. If enough experiences of a wide variety were presented, maximal opportunity would be given for pupils to have experiences significant to each of them as individuals. Hence, as contrasted to the usual textbook approach, it is warranted to consider materials or experiences that may prove significant only to particular individuals. It would be hoped that most experiences would be of some educational value to most pupils, even though really significant only to one or a very few.

The Meaning of Occupational Information

In surveying the present situation in junior high schools, it is not practical to propose radical changes in curriculum or procedures. It is best to accept the basic organization as it is and consider what new elements might be introduced into the existing framework to bring about the desired results. This means studying the present courses as they are taught and developing materials that can be introduced and integrated with present course outlines and textbooks.

Recently A. L. Baldwin [*1*] presented a new construct of "ability" which deals with ability as developing and modifying within the total behavior and developmental process of the individual. Using his construct of ability, occupational information may be more than just information. It may be a stimulation-initiating behavior which will result in improvement of abilities or attainment of new abilities.

The boy who is stimulated by building a one-tube radio set and reads about what an electrical engineer does may be challenged to work harder in his ninth grade algebra course. If he succeeds and gains encouragement, he may be on his way to a scientific career. On the other hand, he may be frustrated in his endeavor to improve his ability in algebra. If he is also familiar with occupational information on TV repairmen or other comparable technician occupations not requiring higher level mathematics, he may realize that his abilities and interests may be more readily applied in this direction.

An unpublished study of engineering students provided a provocative finding which deserves further study and validation [*2*]. It was found, on the basis of information provided upon entering the Ohio State University, that the good students (on the

basis of grade average over five years) and the poor students (low grades, not graduating) had significantly less engineering related work experience than the fair or average students (those graduating with mediocre grade average). The good students had been motivated to take engineering largely on the basis of interest gained in high school mathematics and science courses (or on the theory satisfaction basis); while the average or middle group had tended to take engineering in order to get a job as an engineer (as based on the image derived from their experience); and the poor students had no real basis for entering engineering.

Recapitulation

The process of value and ability development is well underway by the time an individual enters the seventh grade, but with infinite variety among individuals, with no two individuals being exactly the same. The junior high school period should be exploratory in nature, providing ample knowledge and self-insight to make the necessary educational planning decisions.

Occupational information, in its various forms, can be significant in this process, but the nature of the material, timing of its presentation, and appropriateness to individual needs are crucial factors in determining effectiveness. The scope of occupational information must meet the complete range of individual needs and values as related to the future realistic demands of the labor market. Further, such material must be presented at times and under conditions to encourage maximal stimulating effect, along with appropriate potential follow-through facilities or conditions for those who do respond. Since it cannot be predicted when or to what any one individual will respond, it is necessary to provide as many exposures, both in number and type, and under as many conditions as possible.

Summing up, occupational information, effectively used, is not just a group of pamphlets and books in the library or in the guidance counselor's office. Rather, it is integration of all available appropriate materials into every "nook and cranny" of the curriculum and total program of the school. Such integration demands that guidance counselors not limit their activities and influence to the counseling office. They must cooperate with teachers and persuade them to incorporate occupational information in their courses and other school activities. With proper ingenuity, enthusiasm, and careful planning such incorporating may be done without detriment to curricular content. Instead, it will probably enrich the content and stimulate pupils to work harder. Even more important it will lead to improved self-insight and broader realistic perspective for the future on the part of our junior high school youth.

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Integrating Occupational Materials into the Curricular Process

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THERE IS general agreement among occupational experts as to the need for presenting and using occupational materials at the junior high school level. It is also generally agreed that the most effective approach is to present occupational material as an integral part of the curriculum. There

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is equal agreement, unfortunately, that at the present time teachers are generally ill-equipped both from the point of view of their actual knowledge of the world of work and their attitudes as to the place of occupational materials in the curriculum of the junior high school. Many teachers, unaware of the vocational implications of their teaching, have little understanding of the changing occupational patterns and composition of society. At the local level, teachers too often have little realization of just what happens, occupationally, to their children after they leave school. In the Boston area, for example, one of the major employers is Raytheon, yet many teachers operate as if they were either unaware of this fact, or they feel that this has nothing to do with the education of the child.

Basic Points

Thus while we agree that occupational materials should be integrated into the curriculum, we face the challenging problem of a youthful population in a junior high school which is interested but unrealistic in its ideas of the vocational future, a teaching staff which is sometimes uninterested, but equally unrealistic as to its ideas about the vocational future of the children and the status of occupations in the culture, and a curriculum which up to the present, at least, has tended to present an equally narrow and unrealistic picture of the world of work. Any discussion of the implementation of occupational information into the curriculum must carry with it the assumption that teachers, either in their teacher education institutions or as part of their in-service education, gain a greater understanding of the place of occupational materials in the curriculum and in the total education of the child.

In approaching the problem of the integration of occupational materials into the curriculum, several other basic points must be kept in mind:

1. The junior high school child is not going out into the world of work. He is staying in school, and the basic decisions that he makes at this stage, if he makes any at all, are largely educational.

2. The problem at this stage is not so much helping the child to make a decision, but to continue with one of the major functions of the school—helping him to develop the attitudes, the understandings, the skills so that he may learn how to make a decision or how to make increasingly critical decisions.

3. The junior high school child is right in the middle of an exploratory, an evolutionary, a developmental process. His vocational maturing, his educational and social maturity, shows in the clarity and realism of his thinking and planning about future choices.

4. The junior high school contains a heterogeneous population representing all the people of the nation. This single fact probably presents the major problem of modern American public education—how to provide a "good" education for everybody, when "good" would appear to be different for just about everybody. Those attempting to integrate vocational materials into the curriculum must face up to this same problem.

5. Vocational information, *per se,* will probably be as valueless as much of the other information which is presented "willy nilly" to the child as he goes through school. We may talk of education, or learning, or guidance, or counseling, but in all cases, it is the *process* which is the basic and crucial factor. The knowledge will soon be forgotten; it is what happens during the temporary acquisition of the knowledge that leaves its mark on the learner. Thus while the teacher must have available factual occupational information, it is the teacher's skill which will determine whether or not this occupational material has any meaning to the child.

A Necessary Procedure

It might be that the best procedure in this brief paper would be to attempt to look at the step-by-step procedure as to what might be done on this question of the integration of occupational materials into the curricular process in a school system:

1. There must be leadership, and it would seem that the major professional responsi-

bility for this leadership would fall on the shoulders of the guidance counselor or the guidance director. Like most of the other features of a guidance program, or possibly even more so, the success of this aspect depends entirely on the enthusiasm and willingness of the teachers of the junior high school to become involved in the problem. Thus the guidance department in the school should marshal some of the evidence as to the need for a much more effective job in the matter of the vocational education of the junior high school child—evidence such as that presented in some of the other papers in this symposium and available in almost all of the professional texts in vocational guidance.

Any meeting of the teaching staff and guidance personnel should be preceded by a study of the occupational status of the children in the school—their needs, the realism of their vocational aspirations and plans, the maturity of their vocational thinking. A study might also be made of the realism of the teachers with regard to their knowledge of the actual vocational future which lies ahead for the children in the community in which they live.

2. A series of meetings between the guidance staff and small groups of teachers, possibly those representing one department or a particular area of study, would likely be more fruitful than large meetings. It might be that for a trial run in a school, only the social studies teachers or only in the area of social studies would there be a planned attempt at integration. The heterogeneous population would obviously pose a major problem, as it does in the educational process generally, and the social studies staff and the guidance personnel would have to determine the what and the how of this question so that the child will become better equipped to face what in a few years will be the most important single aspect of his life—his job. It would be important too, that the planning take place for the three-year period in junior high school or at least for between that period of time when the child comes into the junior high school and when he leaves it.

3. A product of these meetings could be a workbook which would indicate the most logical and effective places in the social studies curriculum where certain types of occupational materials could be used, with precise indications of just where the actual informational material could be found. The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics has been and is actively engaged in the actual production of occupational materials, but these materials will be of little avail unless they are used intelligently by the teacher.

4. The curriculum, while fluid, is already established, so that it would not be unreasonable to suggest that any new occupational materials that are planned for the junior high school are prepared with some understanding of the junior high school curriculum and just where they might be used in the curriculum.

5. Contacts may be made with other schools, locally, and throughout the country to find out just what has been done in other schools; and in many schools much is being done.

In the long run, of course, the integration of occupational material into the curriculum of the junior high school depends less on the occupational knowledge of the teacher than it does on the educational attitude of the teacher. Teachers can, without too great difficulty, bring an occupational flavor into much of their teaching *if they want to.* The hard fact is that many don't want to. They can encourage children to delve more deeply into information about jobs in which they may be interested; they can help them to evaluate more realistically the information that they have; they can try to increase the occupational materials available in the library and in the teacher's own homeroom; they can become more educated about occupations and job opportunities in their own community. This is necessary to get something of occupational reality into the classroom, so that the child may at least begin to wonder about the idea that he's going to be an employee a lot longer than he's going to be a student. Required reading can have more of an occupational bent to it, and teachers can check the occupational naivete of the school books that they

use and keep the pressure on school administrators to find more realistic books.

A Double Purpose

Almost any subject can easily be presented with some occupational flavor but should not narrowly center on specific jobs. Certainly students taking a course in algebra should not come to feel that such a course makes sense only for those who are going to be mathematicians, nor should those who take English feel that it is good primarily for those who are going into writing, journalism, or the teaching of English. These courses, like all others, should be educational, not vocational, but they will make more sense educationally if they are tied to the modern world of work. This, of course, may push some teachers into a corner, particularly those whose only answer to the question, "Why do I have to take this?," is "It disciplines the mind." Even Pasternak's currently well-known novel, has a degree of occupational meaning.

Teachers, then, must be introduced to the concept that there can be some degree of occupational exploration in the curriculum of the junior high school, and the best place to do this is in the teacher preparation institution. In the school, the guidance counselor is the most logical individual to work with a guidance committee in assisting the teachers. It is more difficult to have occupational material integrated into the academic curriculum, however, than it is to develop an occupational unit as a separate entity, but a teacher becoming involved in this activity would probably find it easier to work out an occupational unit in a homeroom before attempting to integrate material into the curriculum. Any teacher, if really interested, could explore this area in the same manner as did a certain teacher of an eighth grade class in a junior high school in Maine. She decided to work out an exploratory unit in occupational information in the homeroom period of her class. This unit would run for three months, with three periods a week. Her broad purpose was to give the children a more realistic picture of the world of work and to help them to become aware of their interests and abilities and just how they might use them.

She administered the Kuder and an SRA Achievement measure. Just after this was completed, the area had the biggest snowstorm in 33 years, closing school and disrupting life in the community. The teacher used the storm as an introduction to her topic—jobs created by the storm, jobs hindered by the storm. She then discussed the proposed topic, for their suggestions and changes. The children then made a survey of the jobs in the community, with each child interviewing 10 people, using a simple filing-size card to record the information. The class was divided into groups on the basis of interests, and each group studied occupations and occupational opportunities in their field. They collected materials, made use of the D.O.T., made bulletin board displays. Each individual in each group chose a particular occupation for a more detailed report and reported to the class on the importance of the occupation, the nature of the work, the trends in the occupation, the working conditions, the personal qualities needed, the preparation required, the opportunities and compensations, the advantages compared with the disadvantages. The entire class also went on several field trips and listened to talks by the school guidance counselor.

There was nothing particularly novel about this teacher's experience, but it was novel for the teacher and novel for the children. If teacher education institutions and guidance counselors in schools could help to stimulate the interest of teachers and supply them with basic information, there would be a good chance that many teachers would carry the ball from that point on. A unit, such as the above, could easily be worked out by any teacher, and this could be followed by the more difficult task of determining just exactly what occupational materials could be integrated into a section of a course such as English, taught to a particular group of children in an eighth grade class.

The Use of Occupational Information for the Junior High School Age Group

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THE DISSEMINATION of occupational information is one of the basic services of a guidance program, but the way the information is presented and used will depend upon the point of view of the program. On the surface, guidance may seem to be preoccupied with educational and vocational choices. Actually, these are manifestations or implementation of the basic concerns of guidance: The kind of person each individual is and is becoming, and the kind of picture the individual has of himself, of his world, and of himself in relation to that world. Through guidance—whether in the classroom or in the counselor's office—the school attempts to give personal meaning to the individual's experiences and opportunity and, in so doing, places the individual center front on the stage.

With this concept, the dilemma of recruitment versus guidance can be resolved easily. Recruitment is a bona fide activity, but not for a school guidance program. Occupational materials prepared by professional associations and industries alike have a recruitment purpose. The guidance program must make use of these for guidance, not for recruitment, purposes. For example, guidance is not so much interested in encouraging a student to look forward to the profession of medicine as it is interested in having him find a career direction (and an educational direction) which in his case may be medicine. This is a real distinction in the guidance approach, fundamental at the philosophical level, which when translated into practice provides a basic policy of operations.

Closely related to this point of view is the understanding that vocational adjustment, of which vocational choice is a part, is not only a long time process but also an evolutionary one never completely finished. With these points as background, questions regarding the use of occupational information can be organized under the familiar journalistic dictum of why, who, what, how, and where.

Why?

Previous papers in this series have given some answers to this question. The junior high school age group brings to school interests and yearnings toward adult status, affording the school the opportunity to introduce meaningful occupational information at this point. Here can be introduced a systematic presentation of occupational information as general education that will be useful in more specific contexts later; in doing this, the school is able to introduce the habit of organized inquiry into the subject. The school is, in effect, opening up a whole new world through organized attention. The techniques of career study can be lasting, regardless of how rapidly the specific facts become obsolete.

Another purpose is to arouse sensitivity to the variety of opportunity and to the fact that a wealth of career information is available. The need for sensitivity was demonstrated in a limited and informal study of 153 summer school students in grades seven and eight, of whom 67 per cent hoped to enter the professions. Although detailed socio-economic information about these students was lacking, sufficient knowledge existed to make it doubtful that this preference reflected the occupational status of the parents. In the case of this group, sensitivity or realistic aspiration would probably have had a downgrading effect upon the group as a whole but the opposite might have been the case with individuals in the group or with other groups.

A major reason for introducing occupational information revolves around moti-

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vation. Some young people need encouragement to stay in school; some to improve their skills; others to look forward and upward, and some to make preferable educational choices. Still others will be motivated toward appropriate goals by gaining a sense of their relationship to the world —often a sense of personal significance which may have no element of social mobility in it at all, only a sense of vocation in its Latin meaning.

Who?

All young people need and should be exposed to occupational information. The more difficult answer to the question, *who?* relates to who should provide the information. The organization of the school will influence this answer, but experience reveals a few guidelines. Actually, occupational information is a specialized competence of its own, requiring study and experience and familiarity with the local community. One does not acquire this sort of competence quickly or readily. Because teacher education institutions have regrettably ignored this area of knowledge on which to build, most teachers must learn the facts of vocational life lying outside the field of education by themselves and frequently unlearn some false stereotype concepts.

Since the dissemination of occupational information is a guidance service it should be the responsibility of guidance counselors, working in group situations. When staff limitations make this impossible, effort should be made to fix responsibility for this area of study in a few selected teachers under a departmentalized arrangement. When in opposition to these principles, responsibility for this service is extended across the board among teachers, these results are apt to occur:

1. Everybody's business becomes nobody's interest;
2. Occupational information becomes expendable when an extra spelling lesson or a rehearsal for a pageant is scheduled;
3. Occupational information waits until 2 P.M. Friday, when the intellectual fires are banked and everyone knows it is the last on the list for the week;
4. The quality of the service fluctuates with the teacher's interest and security in the field; and
5. The information is as accurate as the teacher is up to date.

On the basis of experience, this writer believes that departmental status must be accorded to this area of information as to any other, and that short of this the guidance program will suffer and young people will be poorly served.

What?

To be suitable for the junior high school age group, occupational information materials must answer the questions of the age group and conform to appropriate reading levels. Conceptual levels rather than vocabulary levels are important. While there are no comprehensive materials for this age group comparable to the *Occupational Outlook* materials for more mature readers, there are many available pamphlets and books which can be utilized. There are films, and there are the activities of the local community. Very simple activities can serve to pool the available local occupational information. One group guidance teacher had pupils interview various school visitors. The milkman, postman, and two fathers answered questions about the educational requirements of their jobs in a half-hour period one morning. The work experience of the faculty provides a ready resource, as do the business firms and workers in the community. Utilizing such a pool of information has the advantage of balancing the weight of printed material at the professional level.

At this age level, an exhaustive study of individual occupations is probably inappropriate since the purpose is not to narrow career thinking but to broaden it. What we are trying to do must be clear in our minds as we do it, but what we want pupils to do must be clear also. Often it is necessary to help pupils and their parents understand the purpose of occupational information. It frequently must be made quite clear that we do not mean for pupils to settle on a career field at this point.

Relationships are important as well as the pertinence of the information to the activ-

ity or responses expected of the pupils. For this reason, some omissions are probably advisable. Probably few things would interest junior high school students less than the history of most occupations. These students are interested in action—in doing themselves, and in what other people do. Our 14-year-olds are not going to go job hunting tomorrow but will be in an educational setting for four or eight more years. Since beginning salary figures of today will probably have little reality for the future, this sort of information lacks relevance. Likewise, these young people will not be 65 until the year 2010. Who knows what will have happened to pension plans or even to the finality of 65 by then? Young people meanwhile will be making educational choices and formulating attitudes toward study. It, therefore, seems logical to relate career information to educational information. Since guidance is a personal service, occupational information must have personal relevance, and what we include in it must have an element of immediacy about it in terms of next steps or current happenings in the lives of our pupils.

A number of related areas can contribute general information useful in developing concepts about the work world. Labor news, techniques of applying for jobs, part-time work experience, characteristics of successful businessmen, and work habits and attitudes are examples of what can be grist for this mill. Such topics have the advantage of providing unifying threads and of stimulating acceptance of sound concepts common to all work. They can draw upon the actual experience and observation of the pupils and help all of them to identify with workers in many fields and at various skill levels.

How and Where?

Answers to these questions are so interrelated it is pointless to distinguish between them. While counselors will occasionally have reason to utilize occupational information in interviews, the burden of the job to be done can be discharged most economically and effectively in group settings, initially at least. Counseling sessions can then serve a follow-up purpose, particularizing information where advisable.

Group processes must, however, provide opportunity for the personal involvement of the pupils in the activity and for assimilation of facts in relation to personal characteristics and goals. Career conferences, *per se*, are not the answer to this need. Rather, activities for the pupils must be devised so they have the experience of inquiry, discussion, reaction, and personal evaluation.

The Chicago public schools have had some experience in this undertaking for 14 years and are now developing more extensive activities in this area. A booklet, *What Next for the 8A Graduate?*, revised annually and provided to all pupils, approaches the problem of high school choices from the standpoint of self-appraisal and general career information. Suggested activities develop the relationships between these two. New group guidance units incorporate these activities into a more concerted effort that is carried on over a longer period of time. This program includes specific units on occupational information. Also, references to this area of study enrich units on related topics, such as educational information or problem solving techniques.

Occupational information can be approached from several starting points, such as abilities, interests, industrial organization, or school subjects. Interest in science, for example, may lead to the study of occupations in the health field, in which all levels of ability can be (and are) accomodated. Potential physicians, medical technicians, and registered and practical nurses share at least one interest though they differ in abilities and other characteristics. This approach encourages an interest and can suggest a direction while leaving until later the insights and decisions of a judgmental character.

Similarly, a study of industries broadens the concepts of the structure of the work world and of each individual's multiple opportunities in it. A secretary may work in a steel mill, a school, or a department store (to give only three examples) and in each case would become part of the steel in-

dustry, education, or merchandising. Carpenters, nurses, and librarians could make the same choice of industries. This approach suggests that many factors other than ability and specific skills are to be considered in selecting occupational directions, such as interests, preferences regarding working conditions, the local economic structure, and the view of the world each person has which suggests to him the institutions in our social organization with which he wishes to identify himself.

Conclusion

Occupational information can enrich a junior high school pupil's general experience and arouse his awareness of the world around him. It can increase his motivation and influence his educational plan. To serve these purposes, the information must have personal meaning to him, helping him to get a clearer picture of himself and of his opportunities, here and now as well as in the future. He must participate in the process himself and know what he is to do with the new insights he is gaining. Moreover, the school must know what it is trying to do and what it expects the pupil to do. Perhaps the Chinese philosopher who said, "The journey of a thousand miles is taken one step at a time," can help us in our concept of our purpose.

NEW VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION INTERNSHIP PROGRAM

A Vocational Rehabilitation Counseling Internship Program was recently announced by the Institute for the Crippled and Disabled, New York City. Supported jointly by the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the Institute, the internship program is open to those who have completed the masters degree in vocational rehabilitation counseling, psychology, and related programs, and to those who are enrolled in third and fourth year doctoral programs in the same fields. The program is focused on the preparation of the intern for assignment in comprehensive rehabilitation facilities, government agencies, hospitals, and in sheltered workshops. A brochure fully describing the program is available on request from Dr. Wilfred Haber, Chief of Vocational Rehabilitation Counseling Services, Institute for the Crippled and Disabled, 400 First Avenue, New York 10, New York.

A Pilot Study in Local Research with the *DIFFERENTIAL APTITUDE TEST BATTERY*

YEUELL Y. HARRIS and ARTHUR A. DOLE

A FREQUENT complaint is that not enough studies are made with standardized tests at the local level. Test publishers and experts exhort consumers to "develop your own norms; make your own prediction studies." This is a report on a pilot study of the *Differential Aptitude Test Battery* [*1*] as applied in 1949 to 221 juniors at a large city high school in Honolulu, Hawaii, who later sought admission to a land grant university in the same city. Our pilot study had four major objectives: (1) to establish the applicability of the DATB in our specific Polynesian-Oriental-American locale; (2) to enrich, improve, and encourage sound counseling of high school youth in college planning; (3) to demonstrate to local guidance and administrative personnel the values of a longitudinal approach in meeting a familiar problem; and (4) to serve as a source of ideas for further, more elaborate studies.

In a study similar to this and prepared independently, Vineyard [*3*] has established that the DATB is valid at Stillwater High School in predicting first year academic performance at Oklahoma A. & M. In contrast, we attempted to translate correlational data into meaningful expectancy tables for the University of Hawaii-bound which local school counselors could use.

Procedure

Two hundred and twenty-one seniors at Roosevelt High School applied for admission to the University of Hawaii in the spring of 1951. Of these, 36 were refused admission; 54 did not complete registration at the University in the fall of 1951 although they were accepted; 22 dropped out of the University between the beginning of fall semester, 1951, and the end of spring semester, 1952, for various reasons; and 109 completed the first and second semesters of the freshmen year, 1951–1952.

From Roosevelt High School it was possible to obtain for these 221 students scores on each of the eight tests of the DATB taken in 1949 when they were juniors. From the records of the University of Hawaii the scores were obtained on the two college aptitude tests administered as part of the admissions procedure in the spring of 1951: *The American Council on Education Psychological Examination,* Form 1947, and the *Ohio State Psychological Examination,* Form 23. In addition, the cumulative grade point ratios of 109 persons who finished the freshman year were obtained through the cooperation of the Director of Records and Admissions, University of Hawaii.

Each DATB has been examined in terms of its effectiveness in predicting performance on the entrance examinations to the University and academic achievement in the freshman year. The pilot study lumps together men and women, University colleges, and the cumulative grade point ratios for different curricula combinations of some 30 different underclass courses. With a relatively small number of cases, we were more interested in drawing a rough outline of the situation rather than a detailed picture.

By the fall of 1957 it was possible to make

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a meaningful follow-up of the subsequent progress of the 109 who completed their first year at the University of Hawaii through a search of University records. Two were still in school and are not considered further here; 55 had earned baccalaureate degrees at the University of Hawaii; 19 had entered other colleges and universities throughout the United States; 16 had terminated their college careers in good standing without earning a degree; and 17 had been dropped by the University for academic reasons. The ratio of women to men, approximately three to one, was the same among the original freshmen as among the surviving graduates. This ratio was two to one for dropped and transferred groups and there were no men among the voluntary withdrawn.

Local Publication of Findings

Our detailed findings to date were included in a mimeographed publication, *Research Studies in Hawaiian Education* [2]. It presented graphs for counseling, normative and correlational data, and prediction tables for the first crucial year of college. Counselors were cautioned about limitations and were given suggestions for possible use in guidance. An *addendum*, distributed a year after the original publication, described the four-year follow-up of the college group. In addition, a preliminary copy of this article was circulated among University administrative and counseling personnel. TABLES 1 and 2 and Graph A, which will be discussed in the following sections, illustrate some of our locally published material. Some of this material has been reproduced in the publishers' Test Service Bulletin [4].

TABLE 1 compares the scores on the DATB of the various groups and shows the relationship between the DATB and later score on one of the University of Hawaii entrance examinations (*Ohio State Psychological Examination*) and between the DATB and the cumulative grade point

TABLE 1

DATB Scores of Eleventh Grade Students who Applied to the University of Hawaii

Group		Verbal Reasoning	Numerical Ability	Abstract Reasoning	Space Relations	Mechanical Reasoning	Clerical Sp. & Acc.	Language Spell.	Usage Sent.
Completed 2d Semester of Freshman Year (N = 109)	Mean	27.4	24.6	32.4	54.4	30.9	61.4	73.1	49.2
	SD	8.7	7.9	9.5	20.0	13.1	10.9	24.0	12.4
Refused Admittance (N = 36)	Mean	17.6*	16.0*	28.1†	38.5†	21.9*	59.4	57.1*	31.3*
	SD	6.9	7.1	8.9	20.4	12.1	11.2	25.1	14.5
Accepted but did not Register (N = 54)	Mean	28.8	23.9	34.1	58.1	32.5	62.7	68.4	47.4
	SD	8.6	8.4	6.8	20.6	13.8	11.3	23.2	14.8
Dropped out before end of 2d Semester (N = 22)	Mean	27.5	22.0	35.6	52.9	35.4	59.7	77.0	44.5
	SD	7.3	8.0	7.7	23.5	10.4	7.7	14.9	13.7
TOTAL ALL GROUPS (N = 221)	Mean	26.1	22.8	32.5	52.6	30.2	61.2	69.8	45 3
	SD	9.1	8.5	8.9	21.6	13.5	10.8	24.1	14.9
Correlation Between Eleventh Grade DATB Scores and Freshmen Grade Point Averages of 108 U. of H. Freshmen		0.52*	0.36*	0.31*	0.20†	0.26*	0.25*	0.15	0.56*
Correlation Between Eleventh Grade DATB Scores and Scores on the Ohio State Psychological Examination of 221 Applicants to U. H.		0.74*	0.55*	0.41*	0.39*	0.30*	0.64*	0.42*	0.72*

* Significant at the 1 per cent level. Means are compared with completed second semester group.
† Significant at the 5 per cent level. Means are compared with completed second semester group.

ratio at the end of the freshman year. All the DATB, except Spelling, are significantly related to college performance. The mean scores of the group accepted by the University (without knowledge of the DATB) are significantly higher than those denied admission on all tests except Clerical Speed and Accuracy. Students who finished the freshman year did not differ significantly from those who did not exercise the option for some reason or who quit before the first year was over. For this group we cannot say that the University loses its best students before school starts or that it is the psychometrically inferior students who tend to drop out before the end of the second semester.

All of the DATB predict success on the OSPE, a college aptitude test which is primarily verbal in nature, requiring accuracy in recognizing words of similar and opposite meaning, in completing analogies, and in textbook reading comprehension. Verbal Reasoning and Sentences are the best predictors both of later performance on the University of Hawaii entrance examinations and of academic success in the first college year.

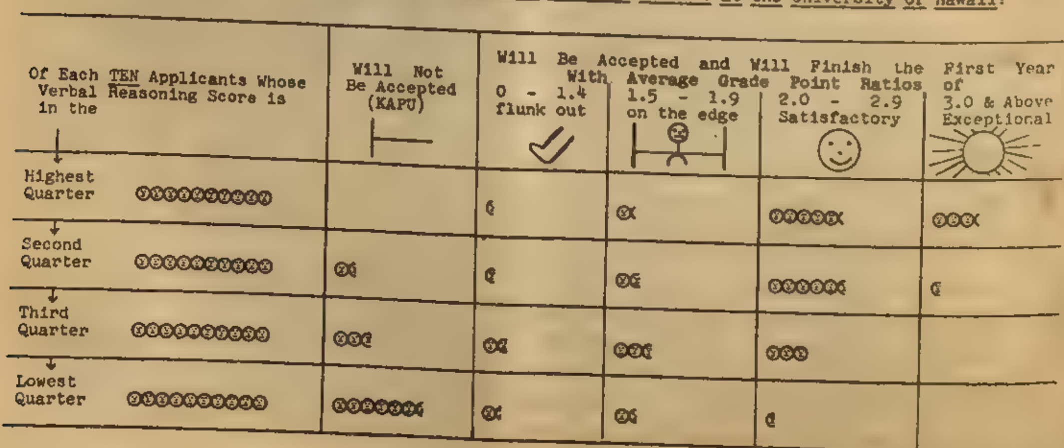
In Graph A we have translated one of our prediction tables into a counseling aid. The use of broad groupings for test scores and criteria is intended to protect against false precision in interpretation. *Research Studies in Hawaiian Education* makes suggestions to the counselor for use in working with typical students and cautions the user about such limitations as the lack of precision of the data, the selective origin and small size of the sample, and the possible unreliability of the criteria. A similar graph (not included here) has been constructed for Sentences.

College Aptitude Tests

The means of the total scores of the two college aptitude tests (data not shown in tables) were also compared for the various Roosevelt High groups. As on the DATB, those who finished a year of college do not differ significantly from those who failed to consummate their acceptance by registering at the University of Hawaii and from those who dropped out before the end of the second semester. However, as would be expected, since the tests were part of the criteria for acceptance by the University, the Roosevelt students who were denied admission have significantly inferior scores on the college aptitude tests. OSPE correlates 0.53 with first year grade point ratio and 0.45 with ACE. Note that the best DATB predictors, Verbal Reasoning and Sentences, are just about as efficient in predicting college success for this group as the University entrance examinations which were

GRAPH A

What Does the Verbal Reasoning Test Tell About Academic Success at the University of Hawaii?



given a year later and were much longer in terms of administration time.

Prediction of Four-Year College Performance

TABLE 2 relates performance on the DATB, ACE, and OSPE to the later academic performance of the 107 students who survived the first year at the University. It is important to bear in mind that the results are undoubtedly influenced by differences in sex distribution and selective factors in the choice of curricula and that the correlations may be reduced because of the constricted ranges of both predictor variables and criterion. Of interest to University of Hawaii officials is the apparent fact that students who transfer to other colleges or who withdraw from all higher education are quite similar scholastically and psychometrically to those who remain to graduate. At least for this high school group the statement, "all of our best students leave after the first year," seems to be a myth. Of interest to counselors of the college-bound is further confirmation of TABLE 1. Academic failures at the University of Hawaii score significantly lower—about one standard deviation below their successful classmates—on Verbal Reasoning, Clerical Speed and Accuracy, Spelling, Sentences, ACE and OSPE. Their averages are below the 50 percentile on the DATB (secondary school norms) and the 25 percentile on the ACE and OSPE (published norms for college freshmen).

It is not surprising that first year grades are the best predictors of final cumulative grade point ratio (uncorrected for contamination). But it is perhaps unexpected that three of the DATB—Verbal Reasoning, Abstract Reasoning, and Language Usage Sentences—should hold up as well as the OSPE given one year later and should be superior to the ACE for this group.

Conclusions

Granting such limitations as the origin of our sample, its small size, the unreliability of grade point ratios as criteria, and the lumping together of males and females and of different curricula, we think we have

TABLE 2

DATB Scores in the Eleventh Grade, UH Admissions Tests and First Year Cumulative Grade Point Ratios of 107 UH Freshmen Who Later Graduated, Transferred, Withdrew, or Were Dropped

Group		VR	NR	AR	SR	MR	CS&A	Language Usage Spell.	Language Usage Sent.	ACE Q	ACE L	ACE Total	OSPE Total	1st Year GPR
Graduated	Mean	28.6	26.1	33.6	55.3	30.7	65.6	78.3	51.7	40.6	62.5	103.1	87.3	2.3
(N = 55)	SD	8.2	6.7	9.2	17.0	12.9	7.7	19.6	11.2	9.9	12.0	17.6	22.3	0.5
Transferred	Mean	29.6	24.0	34.1	61.5	37.2	62.3	68.4	49.0	40.4	64.1	104.5	82.4	2.2
(N = 19)	SD	9.4	9.9	9.2	18.6	15.6	11.9	21.2	11.4	13.3	14.5	25.1	23.3	0.2
Withdrew	Mean	27.2	21.8	30.4	50.8	28.1	61.1	79.5	52.8	41.1	65.1	106.3	82.6	2.2
(N = 16)	SD	8.9	8.6	8.2	23.3	10.3	11.0	22.8	12.8	9.0	5.8	24.5	29.4	0.7
Dropped	Mean	21.7*	23.5	28.7	51.6	28.2	54.8†	58.5†	37.2*	34.5†	51.2*	85.7*	54.5*	1.3*
(N = 17)	SD	5.8	7.6	9.6	21.6	11.3	16.5	28.8	10.0	9.5	6.1	10.4	9.9	0.2
Correlation of Eleventh Grade DATB Scores, ACE, OSPE, and First Year CGPR with the Final Cumulative GPR of 55 UH Graduates														
		0.34†	0.23	0.30†	0.08	−0.06	0.05	0.19	0.33†	0.12	0.24	0.22	0.32†	0.64*

* Significant at the 1 per cent level. Means are compared with graduated group.
† Significant at the 5 per cent level. Means are compared with graduated group.

established that DATB probably can be very helpful in predicting early in high school acceptance or rejection by the University of Hawaii and approximate college academic performance. We can help school counselors to identify the worst and best bets for higher education.

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ODE TO ADOLESCENTS

Awkwardly, gawkily, lanky and callow,
Burgeoning adult full of braggadocio,
On peak one moment, in depths the other.
Hero-worshipping iconoclast, pupil paradoxical,
Decibel-destroyer, with mood quixotic,
Raucous, green, gauche, and ingenuous,
Action heedless, with values nebulous,
Painfully sensitive, confused, and impetuous.

Tomorrow's sages, pundits, pilots of rockets,
Moon-hopping surveyors of Saturn and Venus,
Atom smasher and electronic genius.

O God—to heroic parents, with wits astray
Give love, strength, and wisdom *today*!

SAMUEL G. GILBURT

THE FUNCTION OF COUNSELING
As Perceived by High School Students

MARILYN HEILFRON

THE GROWING importance of counseling in the high school in recent years has prompted a host of questions regarding the functions counselors should perform relative to the different types of problems presented by students. While much attention has been given to the training of counselors, it appears that little emphasis has been placed upon formal programs for educating *students* about the possible uses of counseling services *per se,* perhaps because counselors themselves disagree about their functions. While there is no doubt that the effectiveness of any counseling program depends upon counselors' perceptions of the role they should fulfill in the high school, it is equally important to a program's effectiveness that students perceive the functions of a counseling department in such a way that they will avail themselves of its services. Unless students are encouraged to broaden their views, it seems reasonable to assume that their perceptions of what counselors can and should do will be limited by their present attitudes regarding the kinds of problems the students themselves feel require some kind of counseling. Thus a question which suggests itself for research is: what role do students assign to high school counselors? More specifically, what types of students or kinds of problems do high school students feel require counseling and to what degree?

Method

As one approach to the problem posed in this study, it seemed appropriate to submit to a group of high school students a set of types of problems which might conceivably be dealt with in varying degrees by counselors. Thus with several modifications the questionnaire devised by Robinson which has been used to get at both teacher and counselor perceptions of counselors' roles [*1*, *2*] was given to 107 high school juniors. The population was equally divided between males and females.

Two major changes were made in Robinson's questionnaire which defines five degrees of counseling and specifies 14 types of students. First, our five degrees of counseling were defined in terms of quantitative rather than qualitative characteristics in order to allow a ranking of the degree of counseling the respondents as a group felt each type of student required relative to all other types. Second, the labels for each type of student were deleted in order to avoid stereotyping. Six of the descriptions of the 14 types were altered slightly by omitting a phrase or inserting a few words of clarification. The revised questionnaire is presented below with the labels included to facilitate interpretations.

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This study was done while she was Counselor at Los Altos High School, Los Altos, California.

What Should Be Done?

Following is a set of descriptions of the different degrees of counseling it might be possible to offer students in a high school. Each degree has a number so that the least amount of counseling is number 1 and the greatest amount of counseling is number 5. Following the degrees of counseling are brief descriptions of different types of students in the ninth grade of a small high school. Please indicate by number the degree of counseling you feel each student needs.

Degrees of Counseling

1. *Minimum:* routine programming conferences once a year which could include, in addition to making up program, reporting of test scores, information concerning colleges, and/or vocations.

2. *A little:* conference once a year in addition to programming conference to discuss problems students may have.

3. *Medium amount:* possibly conferences twice a year in addition to programming.

4. *Quite a bit:* possibly one conference each quarter in addition to programming.

5. *Maximum:* referral of student to agency out-

side of school or to individual in private practice for regular and frequent counseling.

Types of Students

1. *Athlete.* A natural athlete. Even at this grade level is the star in all athletic events held by the school. Has average intellectual ability and grades are generally average also. Has pleasing personality.

2. *Bright.* Very bright student with IQ of 155. Particularly likes physics, but gets A's in all of his courses with little or no effort; (his success in spite of his poor study methods makes it difficult to convince other students that they might benefit from learning better study methods.) Accepted by others. Often a leader.

3. *Cqueer.* He's so odd everyone notices him. Tense, withdrawn, and often smiles or talks to himself. Irregular and eccentric in behavior. Doing very poor school work. Rejected by other students.

4. *Dumb and Deficient.* Doubly troubled because IQ is 75 and he operates at the sixth grade level in the 3 R's. Has difficulty in doing ninth grade work. He is older and bigger than other students and is accepted by them in such activities as athletics.

5. *Engineer.* Has his heart set on becoming an engineer. Has high ability and grades. Has many mechanical and electrical hobbies. Not too socially inclined but is well liked by students.

6. *Failing.* Student has average ability and is doing satisfactory work in everything but mathematics which he is failing. Much upset by failing grade. Has always had trouble with math, just as his mother did. Liked by his fellow students.

7. *Gauche.* Not particularly liked by other students. Dresses in poor taste, not always clean, poor manners, seems awkward. Does good work in school, however.

8. *Homely.* She just isn't good looking at all. She has a pleasant personality, good social skills, and is accepted by other students in class work. Outside of school, however, she has never had a date and other girls tend less often now to be seen with her. Does good work in school.

9. *Ill.* Constantly has colds. Lately has had a bad cough and has lost weight. Says she doesn't feel good. When she does attend school she does good work and is liked by students.

10. *Jerk.* A "teacher's pet." Does well in school; goes out of his way to please his teachers. Rushes home after school to be with mother. Immature, even "babyish" in relations with other students; disliked by other students.

11. *Kiddish.* Girl shows many forms of immature behavior, baby talks, overdependency on mother, can't make own decisions, etc.; however, she behaves in such a "cute" manner that at present she is popular with many of the boys. Does average work in school because parents force her to study and help her with her work.

12. *Loafer.* Very high ability but gets "C" grades. Liked by students; active in school affairs. Thinks "C" grades good enough. Plans to go to Harvard.

13. *Medicine.* Wants to become a doctor, but has low ability and low grades. Will probably have difficulty even in being admitted to college or, if admitted, will have difficulty in staying in.

14. *Not Known.* Never chosen by students to work on committees. Does average work in school but doesn't discuss in class; teacher says nothing about her stands out. Not active in social life. Not rejected by students—just considered sort of "mousy."

The *number* of respondents (107) who specified each degree of counseling for each type of student is presented in Column 1 of TABLE 1. Therefore the first row is read: 49 juniors designated 1 for the degree of counseling; 36 indicated 2; 17 juniors specified 3 for degree of counseling; etc. In Column 2 appears the Rank Score for each type of student which was derived from the formula RS = N (x), where RS = Rank Score, N = number of respondents selecting a specific degree, x = degree of counseling. Thus one arrives at the Rank Score for "Athlete" by: 49 (1) + 36 (2) + 17 (3) + 3 (4) + 2 (5) = 194. Since there were 107 respondents, all of whom for any one type of student could have specified 1 or 5 degrees of counseling, the Rank Scores possible range from 107 (107 x 1) to 535 (107 x 5).

After computing all the Rank Scores, the 14 types of students were arranged in TABLE 1 according to Rank Position; *i.e.,* from low to high Rank Scores to permit quick inspection of the relative positions of each type. From the formula above, it should be clear that the lower the Rank Position or Rank Score for an individual the more frequently respondents indicated a lesser degree of counseling while the higher the Rank Position or Rank Score the greater the percentage of respondents who specified a greater degree of counseling. That is, students perceive "Athlete" as requiring the least amount of counseling, while "Cqueer" requires the greatest amount.

Upon inspection of the Rank Scores in Column 2 it became apparent that the gaps

TABLE 1

Relative Degrees of Counseling High School Students Perceive Selected Types of Students Should Have

Rank Position	Type of Student	Column 1 — Degrees of Counseling (No. Respondents = 107) 1	2	3	4	5	Column 2 Rank Scores	Column 3 Differences in Rank Scores	
1	Athlete	49	36	17	3	2	194		
2	Bright	48	30	19	8	2	207	13	Group I
3	Engineer	32	49	21	4	1	214	7	
4	Failing	7	39	55	6	0	274	60	
5	Ill	23	25	32	19	8	285	11	Group II
6	Homely	14	29	32	29	3	299	14	
7	Not Known	3	21	41	34	8	344	45	
8	Gauche	2	15	38	43	9	363	19	
9	Kiddish	3	9	44	45	6	363	0	Group III
10	Loafer	2	15	42	34	14	364	1	
11	Medicine	3	7	31	44	27	376	12	
12	Dumb	0	5	15	58	27	422	46	
13	Jerk	2	5	20	46	37	436	14	Group IV
14	Cqueer	2	3	3	29	70	483	47	Group V

between these scores varied. Thus the difference between each rank and the one immediately following it was computed. That is, the difference in rank points between "Athlete" and "Bright" was 13 (207 — 194) and the difference between "Bright" and "Engineer" was 7 (214 — 207). After determining the differences between each rank and the one following, the 14 types of students were grouped in terms of cutting points or ranks between which the greatest differences occurred. As a result five groups emerged, this number corresponding coincidentally to the five degrees of counseling specified in the questionnaire.

Findings

The first major observation revealed clearly by TABLE 1 is that the students whom our respondents view as requiring the least amount of counseling are "Athlete," "Bright," and "Engineer." By reading down the column of frequencies in Degree of Counseling 1 we see that no other types of students received as large a number of votes for this minimum amount of counseling. Furthermore, quick addition of Degrees 1 and 2 for *Group 1* show that well over 50 per cent of the respondents designated these degrees of counseling in contrast to a lesser percentage in these two columns for the remaining types of students. From the descriptions given of the three types of students, they appear to have four common characteristics: (1) each has some highly desirable attribute; (2) their grades are commensurate with their ability level; (3) they are socially acceptable to their peers; and (4) they do not exhibit such handicaps as immaturity or unusual behavior patterns. The finding suggests, therefore, that students are unaware of the role counselors might play in helping students who are getting along well become acquainted with the range of possibilities for using their talents. (This is particularly apparent in the case of "Bright," who presumably could realize his potentialities more fully if his study habits were improved.) They are equally innocent in their perception that adequate performance socially and intellectually necessarily means a student has no personality problems which might be serious. The opinion expressed here seems to parallel Robinson's earlier finding that potential educators and

experienced workers in the field themselves tend to minimize the role counseling might play in helping such students.

By contrast and again in agreement with Robinson's findings, the respondents feel that the inadequate student needs a great deal of help as expressed by the high Rank Score of the "Dumb" student. Thus it is not the bright but the poor student who needs counseling attention in spite of the fact that the latter is probably performing to the best of his ability.

A glance at the types of students who fall in rank positions 4, 5, and 6 ("Failing," "Ill," "Homely") reveals that again students who seem to be operating relatively well academically and socially are felt by our respondents to require less counseling than those who have such problems as ineptness ("Not Known," "Gauche"), immaturity ("Kiddish," "Jerk") or unrealistic aspirations ("Loafer," "Medicine"). Thus individuals in Group 3 and 4 are felt to require more counseling because they appear to display fewer positive attributes than the types in Groups 1 and 2.

If attention is turned to the types of students who it is felt require the maximum amount of counseling; *i.e.*, professional help outside the school, we find that only "Cqueer" is recommended for such treatment. Only in this one instance did well over 50 per cent of the respondents specify Counseling Degree 5. (70 is 64.4 per cent of 107). The opinion expressed suggests that students reserve psychiatric and psychological help for individuals with relatively extreme and obvious behavior disorders. While it may be assumed that, as high school counselors receive more training in the value of therapy for all kinds of problems, there will be stronger emphasis upon referrals to psychiatrists and clinical psychologists, the ability to make such referrals will be greatly restricted if students continue to feel that these services are only for the extreme deviant.

Summary and Conclusions

This study explored the attitudes of students toward the role of the high school counselor. The specific question investigated was: what types of students or kinds of problems do high school students feel require counseling and to what degree? A questionnaire composed of 14 brief descriptions of different types of students and 5 degrees of counseling was administered to 107 high school juniors.

Two major findings emerged from the study. Based on our sample: (1) high school students feel that students who are performing well academically and socially need much less counseling than students who are intellectually inferior, socially immature, or unrealistic in their aspirations; (2) only students who display obvious character disorders should be referred to agencies outside the school for professional help.

These two findings suggest that students expect counselors to devote themselves to individuals who exhibit overtly that they have problems, possibly to the exclusion of students who need help not necessarily in overcoming social or intellectual handicaps, but in finding the best ways to use their resources. Furthermore, that overtly "well-adjusted" students may have developed good defenses against personality problems which counselors might play a part in resolving is probably beyond the perceptions of high school students. To the extent that these two perceptions are reinforced by similar attitudes on the part of counselors, due possibly ". . . to continuing historical emphasis on rehabilitating the derelict . . ." [*1, p. 500*], well-performing students will be further discouraged from availing themselves of counseling services. Furthermore, it seems evident that much more education of students is needed regarding the function of therapy and counseling, and the services of the psychiatrist, the clinical psychologist, and the counselor in order to rid them of the notion that therapists are "head shrinkers" who deal only with extreme forms of mental and emotional abnormality.

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Personal Values and Achievement in College

AGNES G. REZLER

MUCH HAS BEEN written about underachievers in high school and college, and several studies were devoted to the identification of certain factors that are associated with scholastic achievement or lack achievement. One of the factors that was studied extensively was the relationship between vocational choice and achievement. Marshall and Simpson found that male college students with definite vocational choices achieved relatively mediocre ranks on academic aptitude, but ranked high on academic performance, while students with no vocational choices ranked low on both [7]. Katz and Allport at Syracuse University found that definiteness of vocational decision was a major factor in the student's orientation toward college life. Students with definite vocational goals stressed scholarly as against social values, had better study habits and less personal problems [*4*]. Williamson, on the other hand, found that records from a large number of freshmen did not support the idea that improved scholarship results from having made a vocational choice. Williamson points out that having made a choice does not offer relief in itself if the choice made is inappropriate [*14*]. Some studies report no relationship one way or the other [*2*, *6*].

Strong and Carter studied the appropriateness of vocational choice in terms of vocational interest as measured on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and its function upon achievement. Carter concludes that educational success may be predicted from inventoried interest scores to a certain extent, although correlations are usually low and are not independent of intelligence. Nevertheless predictions can be improved over and above those furnished by intelligence tests by using interest inventories. The prediction of scholarship with intelligence held constant is however very poor [*1*]. Strong points out that correlations between interest test scores and scholarship is generally low, the highest being 0.34 with engineering. When, however, it is a question of students continuing or discontinuing a course of studies, interests have pronounced effects [*10*].

The influence of personality traits on academic success was studied by Jensen with the MMPI, and he found that gifted achievers have fewer adjustment problems [*3*]. This result supports the findings of Terman [*11*]. Shaw found that hostility is more characteristic of bright male underachievers than of bright male achievers; Kirk also emphasizes the role of hostility as an unconscious motive in underachievement [*9*, *5*].

Weitz asserts that the academic performance of only child, male freshmen was significantly inferior to other male freshmen who had siblings [*12*]. Finally Shaw and Brown state that underachievement does not start in college, but begins in high school or sooner, and they hypothesize that underachievement might be closely related to the family and social milieu [*8*].

The Value System

The above studies were mentioned to illustrate that vocational goals, vocational interests, personality factors, and family constellation have been studied in relation to underachievement. The purpose of this

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TABLE 1

Average Scores for Failure, Passing and Control Groups

	Age	ACE Total	Reading	Strong IM	Strong OL	H.S. %	Grade Point Ave. Jan. '59	Grade Point Ave. June '59	Cumul. Ave. June '59
Group A	19	69	33	48	48	33	1.4	1.4	1.4
Group B	19	75	81	50	48	52	2.1	2.2	2.2
Group C	18	81	59	51	49	50	3.2	3.0	3.1

study is to examine another dimension: the value system of underachievers as compared to achievers, when ability is held constant. We will try to identify values with reference to college and vocational choice. If values are defined as things we believe in, or things we ought to do, then the question remains: is lack of achievement on the part of a bright college student a function of believing in the wrong values or a function of believing in the right values but not carrying these beliefs into action for one reason or another? And if so what are the reasons?

Sample

Out of the group of male entering freshmen at Roosevelt University in September, 1958, 36 were selected on the basis of having been dropped from college prior to entering R. U. and on having scored above the 50 percentile on the American College Entrance Examination. Ten of these 36 students left R. U. after one semester and were not available for interview. Of 26 students contacted by mail, 15 responded. This group was divided into two parts on the basis of their grade point averages after one semester at R. U.; seven received passing grades, but none had better than a C average; eight continued to fail. The failure group will be called Group A; the passing group, Group B. The control group, Group C, consists of freshmen students with scores above the 50 percentile on the ACE and with high achievement, B average or better. Group C students started college at R.U. in September, 1958.

Although the groups were matched only with reference to scholastic aptitude, a comparison of religious affiliation, race, number of siblings in the family, father's occupation, and parents' educational background revealed that: (1) the majority of the students in all three groups were Jewish and white; (2) the majority of the fathers in all three groups were businessmen, self-employed or employed; (3) the majority of the parents had some high school background and only about two fathers in each group had college educations; (4) the number of only children was about evenly distributed among the three groups. Hence we can say that being an only child, race, religious affiliation, parents' occupation, and education were by chance equated and, therefore, cannot account for any differences in values that may be present.

Procedure

Each student was interviewed for one hour. An interview guide sheet was prepared, but was often not followed religiously, because we tried to facilitate free flowing information. Since many of these students had failed and were accustomed to being reprimanded for their failure in the past, every effort was made to let them tell their side of the story the way they saw it.

Results and Discussion

Mean scores for age, total ACE, total reading, interest maturity, occupational level, high school rank, and grade point averages at Roosevelt University were computed for all three groups. The averaged scores are shown in TABLE 1.

Statistical tests of significance were not performed because the sample size was too small. But a glance at TABLE 1 indicates that great differences exist in reading and high school rank. Both are well below the average for Group A; these students have a

history of low achievement and do not read on the college level. It is interesting to note that Group B reads much better than Group C, their tested ability for college is about equal as well as their achievement in high school; nevertheless they achieve on a much lower level in college. Reasons for this difference will be discussed later; presently it should suffice to say that on the basis of test results alone much higher performance would have been predicted for Group B. The OL score on the Strong VIB represents level of vocational aspiration and IM represents interest maturity. It was hypothesized that underachievers will be less mature in interest and will have lower vocational aspirations. The data does not bear out this hypothesis, as there is no difference in the OL scores and only a three point difference in IM scores, which is indeed small. It should be noted however that the OL scores for all three groups are quite low, since Strong quotes standard OL score means as 55 for managers and business owners, 56 for salesman, and 62 for professionals. A pattern analysis of the Strong VIB for all three groups indicates that their expressed vocational choices coincide with their measured interests. Consequently Group A's and B's underachievement can not be attributed to being in the wrong field, as far as their interests go.

When comparing grade point averages for the three groups in Table 1, it can be seen that their performance has been very stable over two semesters. Group A continued failing; Group B maintained a passing average, but their gain did not increase in the second semester, and Group C maintained its high level of performance.

In analyzing information obtained during the interview we found the following results:

Group A (dropped—failed again). All eight freshmen in this group were registered in the School of Commerce and have not decided upon a specific major. They were less concerned about the type of work that they were to do and more concerned about the money and prestige that they were hoping to get through the job. The end was decidedly more important than the means by which to get there.

With the exception of one student, all of them thought that they *ought* to go to college. The prestige value attached to college was clearly reflected in this group. "I wanted college because everybody goes, what else is there to do? I want to become something, I do not want to be a garbage collector. I want to get a degree with the least effort." "There is social pressure to be in college. First I wanted to get a profession like accounting, but now I just want to learn a few things that might be useful in taking over my father's business." "One can handle oneself better in the world with a college education. One can talk better about things to people in position." "It was always understood in my family that I would go to college, nowadays you need a degree to do anything." "All my friends are in college, I would feel left out." To be in college means being part of the group; in order to be accepted one must conform to group standards.

All of these boys were already underachievers in high school and they stated that they had no study habits to speak of when they entered college. They felt that grades as such are not important: one ought to get just good enough grades to pass to get the degree, but they felt that many of the required courses will be useless to them in business and a liberal education for its own sake has little value. Upon entering college they realized that they would have to develop some self-discipline, and a conflict developed between their values and their desires. On one hand they told themselves that they ought to finish college to gain prestige and money; on the other hand the personal sacrifice involved in settling down to study instead of having a good time was not to their liking. They felt that one ought to have a good time while one is young and one reason for going to college is to avoid hard work. As one student put it: "I do not want to work as hard as my father had to and one has to have college nowadays to make a good salary without hard work." Or another: "I will go into advertising if I

get a college degree, otherwise I will have to be a typesetter, like my father, and that's hard work." The emphasis is not just on making money but on making it in a white collar job the easy way.

Although most of these students entered college because they wanted to for the above reasons, they feel that they also owe it to their parents who have worked hard to send them to college. While they think that they ought to be grateful to their parents for sending them to college and like to believe that they are, several statements indicate that this value is in conflict with how they really feel. "If I fail at Roosevelt, mother will want me to go to Wright Junior College. I would not mind being drafted, but I can not argue with mother and she is usually right. Service would be okay with me; I would not mind being away from home for a change." Another stated that he can hardly wait for his parents to move to Florida to be left alone. His father puts a great deal of pressure on him; both of his lawyer brothers graduated with honors and he is expected to perform equally well. Another student expressed his resentment against too much pushing: "I do not think, like mother does, that my life is going to end if I do not get a college degree. It would help, of course. I know that if I do not make it I am lazy and that's all." Actually many of these boys are quite dependent upon their parents; they would like to but cannot yet assert themselves directly and resort to asserting themselves indirectly by not studying. Unfortunately this form of assertion is self-defeating because it stops them from realizing their desire for prestige and money.

Group B (dropped—passed with C average). The vocational goals of this group were more diversified. Out of seven students one prepared to be a lawyer, one a choir director, one a chemical engineer, one a high school teacher, one took a liberal arts course but intended to take over his father's business, and two were undecided. This group was less cohesive than Group A in many respects, which was reflected in their values. One boy stated that he has entered college to become a lawyer because of his interest in debating and government. Work for him meant doing something interesting as well as remunerative. Another boy said that he came to college to become a history teacher in high school in order to make history colorful and alive instead of just teaching dates and facts. College for him meant preparation to do something interesting and worthwhile. (This boy failed previously because his father insisted on his taking a business program). Another boy said: "I do not know what good college will do for me except to give me a well-rounded background. If it were up to me I would take just the courses that interest me: art and philosophy and would not work for a degree. I will take over my father's brokerage and I don't need a degree for that." The same boy also stated that he was not ashamed to fail last year, because he was out of town, but would be ashamed to fail now because all his friends and relatives would know about it. He looked upon work as a necessary evil to make enough money to have all the luxuries that he has been accustomed to, and while his hobby was photography, he decided against pursuing it professionally, because business is safer, secure, and remunerative. Living well meant material well-being to him, which he valued highly.

Both of the undecided boys entered college as a matter of course, because they had nothing better to do. One of them returned from the University of Illinois downstate campus because he was not accepted in a fraternity. The same boy has rejected teaching as a career because it does not pay well enough and has tried business courses, because accounting and management are lucrative fields, but did not like the course work. Apparently he thinks that if one goes through college one ought to make a lucrative salary, and this value is strong enough to prevent him from exploring fields of interest that are not lucrative, such as teaching. Another boy said that he came to college "to learn a profession, chemical engineering, and to broaden my horizon. I am introduced to so many different ex-

periences, for instance racial problems. In high school we never had a Negro in class and in college I am going with Negroes and foreign students." For this boy there is value in expanding his horizon besides preparing for a profession. As to his choice of chemical engineering, he chose it because "everything depends upon science and it is fascinating to find out what things are really like." This boy, along with the prospective lawyer, teacher, and choir director, thinks that people ought to work at something that interests them; money and prestige are only secondary considerations. For some of the other boys in this group money is of primary value: those students have not arrived at clear-cut vocational goals yet. The boys who value money so much are also more sensitive to group standards and their individual behavior is governed more closely by what their friends do and say.

Group B, similarly to Group A, did not feel that getting good grades has a value in and of itself. Some of them felt that they wanted to do well in subjects relating directly to their vocational goals, but were satisfied to receive passing grades in the others. For some students academic improvement at Roosevelt University was due to selecting a major that is more in keeping with their interests and values than the previous ones. These students who were still undecided have perhaps passed at Roosevelt University because they preferred this environment to that of their previous colleges.

Regarding their parents, it is best to quote a few statements to show the boys' confusion as to what they expect from their parents. One boy said: "Dad is great except for one thing: he is too lenient with me. He is easy-going, if he gets mad it blows over fast, worry about today and not tomorrow. Mother is great too; she is very intelligent and she can not see why can't her son make Phi Beta Kappa. She yells at me, you have to get better grades, but I just sit there and shrug it off." This boy complains that his father is too lenient with him and that his mother isn't lenient enough. Another student is equally confused: "I asked my father to make me study and now I resent it when he does. But I don't have enough will power to study if I am not pushed." A third student complained that his father was trained as a lawyer and threw his training away to go into business to make more money. Is money really that important—the student asked himself. Which value should he adopt: to become an intellectual, a professional man, or to concentrate on making money? Another student was confused because his father and mother had different values and accordingly expected different things from him. The father wanted him to learn a trade (he was a bricklayer), and the mother encouraged college education so that he would not have to work with hands. Another student took a business course first, because his father's main value is to make money and he wanted to entrust his business to his son. This boy felt that education is of higher value to him than business and got into conflict with his father when he asserted himself by changing his major to education.

The above examples show that the students' confusion over which values to follow interferes with their vocational choice and success in college. The fact that one's mother and father may not believe in the same values only complicates matters and frequently the student finds himself in a vacuum. This process might contribute to the lack of identity that Wheelis speaks of [*13*].

Group C (high achievers). With the exception of one student, all the students have made a definite vocational choice. One boy is going to become a musician and composer because it gives him the opportunity for self-expression. The second boy will become a commercial artist for the same reason. The third one chose physics "because I want to do something that I can put myself into; I can express my individuality in research. I want to be outstanding in research to get recognition through my work." The fourth student chose mechanical engineering because "I want to prepare for a job where I can work

independently, like a senior engineer supervising draftsmen. I do not want to go into engineering management, money is not that important. The main thing is to be happy at what I am doing." The fifth student stated that he made a compromise by choosing to become a stockbroker. "My greatest interest is in psychology and sociology, but I rejected it for monetary reasons. I made a compromise in favor of sales, where I can still deal with people and make money. Also I don't have to do graduate work—I want to get out of college as fast as possible." One student decided to become a biologist, although his parents wanted him to be a pharmacist. He chose biology because he is interested in research and field work and wanted a broader liberal education than that offered in pharmacy school.

The values that governed the vocational choices of these students were opportunity for self-expression, congenial working conditions, and working independently. Only two students mentioned money, and only one student mentioned status as a secondary consideration.

Most of them looked upon college as a place where one prepares for the kind of work one wants to do, and they were willing to work hard to accomplish their goals. They thought that one ought to study regularly and not just before examinations and that getting good grades is worth the effort. Three out of the eight students in this group ranked very low in their high school classes. One low ranking student became a music major, and the two others went into business school. One of these students stated that his attitude toward education has changed a great deal. He dropped out of high school, went to work for two years, and realized that without an education he could not advance. While school did not change his values, staying away from it did.

Group C students have less conflict with their parents than students in Group A and Group B. In some cases their values are the same as that of their parents, at least with reference to college and work. In other cases they can assert themselves in spite of differences with their parents. An example of self-assertion is one of the music students, who said that his parents did not approve of his choice. They would have liked him to study something more practical, but this boy does not think that practical considerations should determine one's choice of a vocation and he has the courage to act according to his own convictions. Two boys stated that while their parents always emphasized the importance of education and college, they did not try to influence them in favor of any particular vocation and they felt free to choose the one that interested them most. This group thinks that college students ought to decide for themselves and that loving your parents does not imply that you let them make decisions for you. One of them said: "I do not think that parents know best; they would have preferred my majoring in science, but they did not influence me really. I would not let them anyhow." Another boy said: "My parents let me make my own decisions most of the time, so I became more independent, which is a good thing."

Summary

Group A believes in the importance of getting a college degree to achieve social prestige and high income without strenuous work. They do not believe in such values as intellectual achievement and a general liberal education. They believe in conforming to group standards and in having a good time while one is young. They also believe that one owes it to one's parents to attend college as an expression of gratitude. Their failure in college is caused partly by conflicting values; it is hard to get a degree without believing in the value of education as such and the value of hard work so necessary for achievement. It is also difficult to work for a degree which will be a thing of the future while one believes in having a good time now. And how can one be grateful to parents, as one ought to be, while at the same time one desires to defy authority and defeat the parents?

Group B is less cohesive than Group A. About half of the group has made a specific vocational choice; they think that people ought to work at something that interests them; money and prestige are secondary considerations. While they do not believe in grades, *per se*, they want to get a broad education besides just preparing in their specific major. The other half of the group, mainly those who have not arrived at clear-cut vocational goals as yet, are groping to find their values. Money is important to them but they are not sure how important it ought to be. Prestige and group standards are also important, but again they feel that it ought to be less important. Their parents frequently add to their uncertainties by believing in and attempting to foster conflicting values in their sons. These boys are searching for values they can really believe in.

Group C students believe that work should provide opportunity for self-expression, independence, and advancement, not just in terms of money but in terms of having a more challenging and independent position. Naturally they also believe that they should make a decent living, but money, with one exception, is not their primary consideration. There is more emphasis on independence than on conformity. They are more willing to work hard and study regularly, because, besides being interested in their fields, they also believe in the value of getting a broad cultural background in college. Group C students are less hostile to their parents than either Group A or B students; they can assert themselves better. By and large, these boys are better integrated, because their values and their desires are closer and, being more autonomous, they have the courage of their convictions.

Conclusion

It is then concluded that there is a difference in values, particularly between Group A and Group C, and that a given value system is not incidental to achievement in college. The outstanding characteristic of our age is that parents themselves have no clear-cut value system to pass on to their children, who come to college for the purpose of getting saleable degrees and who have no goals beyond finding jobs that will pay enough to raise a family according to the American standard of living. In college they are expected to be industrious and disciplined, to give primary attention to their studies, and to have vocational goals sufficiently compelling to make them accept the drudgery involved in much learning. This leads to the underachievement shown in Group A. In order to achieve in college they would need to have more compelling values than living up to the Jones's and making money; they would need to believe in self-expression, independence, hard work, self-discipline, and making one's own decisions as reflected in Group C.

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Guidance in Practice

Low Ability Dropouts Versus Low Ability Graduates

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One of the duties the high school counselor has is counseling low ability students who have indicated the desire to drop out of school. This survey was conducted, in a high school with an enrollment of less than 300 students, to provide information that can be used in counseling these students.

The group selected for study consisted of former students whose birth dates fell in the years 1930 to 1934, inclusive. The group was selected in this manner so that the youngest would have been at least six years beyond high school age and would have established at least a start in his life work. The ages were limited to a five-year span so that changes in school philosophy would not have varying effects upon the students surveyed.

The original plan was to survey the former students in this group who had at least a failing grade and who had scored below 80 on group intelligence tests. Records indicated that there were very few former students from this age group that would satisfy the second qualification. The cut-off point on standardized test results was then raised to an IQ score of below 95 or an ACE score below the 10th percentile. This resulted in a group of 18 graduates and 16 dropouts.

Two methods were used to determine the present success of the former students surveyed. One was a questionnaire which was mailed to those former students who were traceable to present addresses. Other information was gathered from reliable members of the community who knew the present status of our subjects. Some material was obtained through personal interview and some by giving booklets containing questions about each of the students to faculty who have been in the community for many years.

An additional 15 subjects, who were born during the years 1930 to 1934, were drawn at random from the school records so that those in the community who received questionnaires need not be identified with a "low ability" survey. Information was gathered on the students selected at random in the same manner as it was on the low ability group. Data accumulated from the random sample group was not used in determining the results of the survey.

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The following areas of success were investigated: income, church and civic participation, and occupational level. Success in each category was rated 3, 2, or 1, with three points given those considered most successful, one point given those considered least successful, and two points for those classed as moderately successful.

The following criterion was used in assigning success points:

Income:

1. 0–$3,000
2. $3,001–$5,000
3. $5,001 and above

Church:

1. Inactive in church
2. Attends church regularly
3. Attends church regularly and is a leader in church affairs

Civic:

1. Known arrests other than traffic violations
2. Votes but is inactive
3. Votes, is a leader in a community organization or is a local government official

Occupational Level:

1. Unskilled
2. Skilled
3. Professional or Proprietary

The results of the survey are shown in Table 1. The total point column includes points given where information was available. Average points were determined by dividing the points accumulated by the actual number of subjects on which information was gathered. For some of the subjects, information was not available in all success categories.

Success, as rated by this three point system, was higher for the graduates in all categories. Average success, in all categories, was 2.15 for graduates and 1.7 for the dropouts. This gave the graduates a success rating of 0.45 above that of the dropouts. When chi square was applied to the data gathered, significance was indicated at the 0.01 level. The group studied (IQ below 95) appears to have profited by continuing in high school until graduation. If the original plan of using a cut-off point of 80 IQ or below had been possible, the results may have been different.

Has the survey resolved any problems for the counselor? The group studied was small in number. Of the 18 graduates included in the survey information relating to success was gathered on 15. Of the 16 dropouts only nine responded to questionnaires or were rated by persons who knew of their present status. The success categories are not independent of each other and choice of these categories is open to question. Former students were included in the survey on the basis of a single group intelligence test.

Despite the shortcomings mentioned above, I feel that the survey has given me some worth-while information. It has made some change in my opinion of the value of a high school education (this high school is primarily college preparatory) for the low ability student. The experience of working with other faculty members on a common problem was also worthwhile in itself.

TABLE 1
Results of Survey

	Dropouts Total Points	Dropouts Average	Graduates Total Points	Graduates Average	Difference Graduate Average Minus Dropout Average
Income	16	1.8	28	2.2	0.4
Church	12	1.7	31	2.1	0.4
Civic	13	1.6	32	2.0	0.4
Occupation	15	1.7	37	2.3	0.6
TOTAL (of averages)		6.8		8.6	
Average, all categories		1.7		2.15	0.45

The Screening and Referral Function in a University Study Skills Office

NORMAN A. FEDDE and ARTHUR J. KOVER

The Yale Study Skills Office was founded to give instruction to undergraduates in basic study skills—reading speed and comprehension, basic mathematical operations, and efficient study habits. However, as the Study Skills Office has become better known among students, some other functions have developed which were not originally anticipated. One of the more important of these functions is the use of the Office as an informal screening and referral center for many students' adjustment or personality problems.

Counsel and advice are offered the Yale student by formal agencies at most stages of his education [2]. Such formal agencies directly available for referral or direct aid for personality or adjustment problems are the deans' and chaplains' offices, the Career Counseling and Placement Office, and the Division of Mental Health of the Department of University Health. The latter offers "psychiatric review and limited treatment for students . . ." [1]. Other service agencies which offer aid and referral service of a more peripheral nature are the Office of Educational Research, the Financial Aids Office, and the athletic department.

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With so many other sources of aid or referral available to students, it is somewhat surprising that the Study Skills Office has become an important secondary source of referrals to the formal counseling agencies.

Two characteristics of the Study Skills Office tend to make it attractive to students with possible personality problems: the Office is non-official and it is highly visible.

Most of the official agencies for student counseling and aid carry the potential stigma of personal malfunction to their users. No such stigma attaches to difficulty in reading or to lack of other study skills. However, a feeling of insecurity about a study skill may cover a fear of a more widespread difficulty. If a student has a study problem, he may come to the Study Skills Office without placing himself among the "sick." In addition, all facilities of the Office are offered on a completely voluntary basis so that students do not fear being forced to do anything when they seek advice or help. Because the Office occupies a staff position in the University system, its personnel can give the student seemingly authoritative, faculty-like advice without exerting any faculty-like authority.

The other factor which draws students seeking aid for possible personality or adjustment difficulties is the wide diffusion of information about the

Study Skills Office throughout the campus. Tests of study skills given all freshmen makes the Office known to many of them. Diffusion of test scores to the lowest-ranking third of the freshman class increases this sort of knowledge. Upperclassmen are contacted through broadside letters outlining the courses given by the Office during the school year. This policy of advertising the Office and its purpose is in contrast to that of most of the formal aid agencies in the University. Although the stated purpose of the Study Skills Office is not that of giving help to persons with personality problems, it may be the main source of aid of any sort known to the student.

It is obvious that the personnel of the Study Skills Office cannot and will not diagnose or prescribe for any sort of illness or adjustment difficulty. The major task is to send the student to the most appropriate formal agency if he has a problem which seems to require treatment. In cases in which it is clear that the student neither needs nor desires more than specific advice or aid with a study problem, no referral need be considered. However, even in such cases the student is encouraged to talk at length about his problem and his reasons for coming to the Study Skills Office. No attempt is made to keep him to the specific problem which caused him to come to the Office originally. It is felt that this non-directive approach allows the total background of the problem better to emerge.

In some other cases, the student is troubled or tells of psychological disturbance. The personnel of the Study Skills Office can be of no direct aid to him in such a case. Even in cases in which there is some doubt as to the seriousness of the problem, a decision to send the student to a given agency or agencies may be made. In such instances, an informal referral procedure has evolved. An attempt is first made to interest the student in treatment by the agency recommended to him. The student is not forced to seek aid from this agency. Rather, the advantages of aid are stressed and the student is advised to seek the aid himself. Any sort of aid for students' problems is probably more effective if the person is motivated both to seek further aid and to receive treatment. If the student is sufficiently interested, he is told whom to call or visit. If he seems unwilling to make the contact, although motivated to receive treatment, then a telephone call may be made to the agency recommended; if such a call is made, it is done in the presence of the student. This procedure, however, is not favored; it is believed that the first important step toward benefitting from treatment is to want it enough to ask for it.

After the student leaves the Study Skills Office, the staff member writes a summary of the interview and forwards it to the agency to which the student has been referred. Additional records of possible interest such as secondary school records and matriculation data are forwarded as well. In addition, if the student is a freshman, the Office files a record of the interview in the student's record folder and sends a notice to the appropriate resident counselor to inform him of the interview.

Certain problems of the mechanics of referral have arisen and should be studied further. These problems include the origin of the initial impetus to see someone in the Study Skills Office and some investigation of the characteristics of the students who seek aid. A study of this sort is now being considered.

It is to be hoped in conclusion that more thought will be given to the part played by non-counseling service agencies in the total counseling system of a university. Absence of such consideration by planners and others leads to an unfortunate conception of total counseling activities—unfortunate because it is probably partial and unrealistic.

References

1. Department of University Health, Yale University. *Yale University Health Services, Student Health and Insurance Plan, 1959–60.* Pamphlet, Yale University, 1959.
2. Wedge, B. M. (Ed.) *Psychosocial problems of college men.* New Haven: Yale University Press, 1959.

In this issue of the *Journal* we present for the first time a list of many of those who are performing leadership roles in the Association's activities. This directory, which may be easily removed for reference purposes, includes the Officers and Committees of APGA and its Divisions, State Membership Coordinators, and Branch Officers. We hope that you will find it valuable. We welcome suggestions for the improvement of the listing another year.—*Ed.*

Letters

from our readers

An Error Noted

To the Editor:

In the March, 1960, issue of *The Personnel and Guidance Journal* appeared an article entitled "Differential Interest Patterns of Engineering Graduates" by Woodrow Reed, Edwin Lewis, and Leroy Wolins.

It would seem that an error has been compounded in TABLE 1 on page 573 which accompanies that article, for the entire fourth line from the bottom, where mean scores on various Kuder scales of engineering graduates are reported, appears to have been transposed one step.

At Newark College of Engineering we find that the mean scores of male students on the Kuder Preference Record-Vocational scales are as follows:

> Outdoor: 43 plus; Mechanical: 51 plus; Computational: 32 plus; Scientific: 40 plus; Persuasive: 35 plus; Artistic: 24 plus; Literary: 18; Musical: 10 plus; Social Service: 32 plus; and Clerical: 43 plus.

The values reported above would approximate what Reed, Lewis, and Wolins were reporting if the printed line of figures is moved to the right one step. Our figures are based on a class of 410 students who began engineering study in the autumn of 1956, as analyzed by Professor Frank N. Entwisle.

JOHN W. REID
Newark College of Engineering
Newark 2, New Jersey

On Fostering Controversy

To the Editor:

After reading Mr. Morrison's letter in the May, 1960, *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, I felt a few additional comments should be made. His letter dealt with a rather severe criticism of an earlier proposal to use ultra-violet light in grading standardized tests.

Apparently he missed Mr. Dennis's precautionary statements. Mr. Morrison further implied that the ultra-violet bulb "is for the medical diagnosis of ringworm" only.

Ultra-violet light is, in fact, used in many areas of science including photography, metallography, and mineralogy. It is used in aircraft to illuminate the various instruments and at the same time preserve the observers "night vision" ability.

In view of the many adaptives for this light, it would appear worthy of consideration. Mr. Dennis should be complimented for his inventiveness and interest in effecting economics in the testing program.

ARTHUR J. CORBIN
Spencerville High School
Spencerville, Ohio

An Allegory

To the Editor:

Recently as I was examining a broken chain on one of the many bikes in my workshop, someone rapped at my door. In response to my welcome the door swung open, and there stood a fellow with a look of defiance, reluctance, and need written at one and the same time on his face.

I left my work and walked toward him with a warm greeting smile. He appeared deeply troubled about something and I surmised that that something more than likely had to do with bike-riding. Now some may object to my referring to someone who wants to learn to ride a bike as "deeply troubled," but I contend that these doubters are looking at it from their own perspective rather than from the perspective of my visitor. From his point of view it was important, and he was deeply troubled because he didn't know what to do about it. I'd seen this type of thing many times before and had developed a feeling for the person involved.

His story was not unlike others that I had heard. How much he wanted to be able to ride a bike on his own and how he had been unable to get anyone to help him. They had all questioned whether he should or shouldn't, or told him stories about how they had started to bike ride on their own, or discouraged or encouraged him on the basis of silly little ideas and folktales. Even those who offered help were inconsistent, inadequate, and impatient.

While he was talking I looked him over carefully and concluded that there was no physical reason why he couldn't ride a bike. Indeed, it was very surprising that he didn't know how, since he was past the age when most do start bike-riding. As we spoke, I grew more and more confident that he would be able to ride a bike and I told him so. He perked up at this and when I followed with a definite time for his first session, I noticed a faint glimmer shoot through his sad eyes.

Our first few sessions were difficult. I had to hold up the bike completely on my own. He was confused, bewildered, exhausted, and discouraged. Probably the most important aspect of his continuing was to be found in my confidence in and feeling for him. As I instructed him as to how to

do some things and explained why he was doing them, I felt him trying his best more to please me than to ride a bike. Every time he stopped pedaling, for example, he'd look up apologetically as if to say that he was sorry he'd disappointed me.

As the sessions moved on, the bike started to straighten up. Occasionally there was a fall, a skinned knee, or a bruised elbow as I let him go more and more on his own, but his hope for success (it seemed within reach now), my complete faith in him, his desire to please me, and a growing confidence in himself, all combined to overpower his setbacks. More and more he glanced into his reflection in the mirror of my workshop to see how he looked riding the bike. I think he liked what he saw.

At first we started out going straight ahead on a smooth path. As he progressed, not only did I gradually loosen my hold and help, but I also allowed him to experiment with turns and getting on and off on his own when he felt he wanted to. He started to choose his own paths and roads with complete confidence that he could manage them. He started to ride in traffic, which was dangerous, but I guess that's part of bike-riding.

Don't think though that he's changed only as far as bike-riding is concerned. Far from it. The boy seems more happy and content in many ways now. I don't mean to say that riding a bike did it all but probably the idea of accomplishing something, of having someone express confidence and faith in him, of taking command of a situation, and of making decisions, meant a great deal to him and aided his entire outlook.

I see him from time to time nowadays and we always exchange helloes. That's about as far as it goes though. Perhaps he's so confident now that he doesn't even remember my part in helping him. That might be for the best; then again, it might be that I'm just imagining, because he told his friends that I was the best bike-rider helper around.

Mathew Scan
Cornell University
Ithaca, New York

Modern Shibboleths

To the Editor:

I should like to strike a note for what I choose to call "Shibboleths for Modern Counseling Concepts." I feel we need to constantly employ the scientific method of shibboleths or tests to guard ourselves against the general acceptance of counseling concepts stated as established laws or eternal verities. The following shibboleths may be a start in testing these concepts:

1. Is it true in most cases?
2. Is it necessary for suitable adjustment in the world of work?
3. Is it a reliable concept?
4. Is it a valid concept?
5. Is it provable?
6. Is it a part of our culture?
7. Does it challenge reason?
8. Does it oppose the testimony of our senses and observations?

From a much larger list, I have selected a list of 15 concepts which you will find mentioned, though not necessarily endorsed, in C. Gilbert Wrenn's *Guidance in the Age of Automation*, Syracuse University Press, 1957, Chapter VI, "Some Emotional Factors in Counseling." This list includes the following:

1. All counseling is a learning process.
2. Counseling confirms the individual in what he is.
3. Counseling provides the technique for solving future problems.
4. Long-term counseling (many sessions) is more productive than "one-shot" (one day) counseling.
5. Emotions and emotionalized attitudes evoked in counseling should be handled as clinical problems.
6. Changing patterns of self-concepts lead to compromise with elements of client's constellation of self-concepts.
7. Normal adolescent stresses change "reality" choices to "phantasy" choices.
8. "To do" is important because it helps us "to be."
9. Lack of self-confidence stems from awareness of our mistakes and liabilities rather than our assets.
10. The client comes to the counselor (in voluntary cases) because he expects superior understanding.
11. The counselor, in the eyes of the counselee, reflects the welfare of the institution or agency for which he works.
12. No counselor can be neutral or completely objective.
13. A mature counselor has the ability to absorb frustrations without becoming brittle.
14. A mature counselor must be patient with the slow growth process of the client.
15. Every counselor has a reputation unique to him.

I believe that this constant testing of our pet concepts in counseling will stimulate needed changes. The bright shining catch phrases in today's counseling will then become the hollow cliches of tomorrow.

Howard Blank
Veterans Administration
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Books Reviewed

reviews of recent publications . . . by various contributors

Psychology and Rehabilitation, edited by Beatrice A. Wright. Washington, D. C.: American Psychological Association, 1959. viii + 146 pp. $1.50.

There has been a growing concern for understanding the realities of rehabilitation. Many professional disciplines have placed a stake somewhere within the area of the larger field, making a claim for some definitive part in the process of rehabilitation. Nearly everyone sees the need to have full awareness of broad areas of community, social, vocational, and physical information as well as competencies in psychological theory, methodology, and technique. *Psychology and Rehabilitation* attempts to define and delimit certain role expectancies of psychologists as they see themselves functioning within the area of rehabilitation. The book is not a comprehensive or even systematic treatment of all phases of psychology and rehabilitation. It is quite selective in its approach to the problems and to this extent, personally disappointing. Alertness to the subtitle, *"The Proceedings Of An Institute On The Roles of Psychology and Psychologists in Rehabilitation held at Princeton, N. J., February 3–7, 1958,"* is essential as this is most descriptive of the contents.

By design, the Institute was a small, select group. Certainly the professional status and the sincere interest of the members of the Institute group are well established on the basis of their previous contributions to the psychological concerns in rehabilitation, but whether the members were totally representative of the many psychologists in rehabilitation endeavors is left to reader judgment.

The Institute recognized the lag of the psychologists' full identification with the area of rehabilitation. While the organized and formal concern of psychologists for their place in rehabilitation is rather recent, interest and accomplishment of many psychologically trained individuals are much older. It is at just this point where a more inclusive historical perspective might have been appropriate and helpful. Recognition of the major contributions and pioneering by the Veterans Administration Vocational Rehabilitation and Education program for disabled veterans was overlooked in the brief historical account provided by the editor. It is felt there was no intent to disregard any major contributions, but failure to identify this program singularly was quite noticeable since it did move bravely and forcefully into the field of rehabilitation on a mass basis.

When the book is considered as the report of meetings from the Institute, it seems more useful and meaningful. Many pertinent issues were dealt with and evaluated, some with considerably more depth than others. The issue concerning doctoral training as requisite for every rehabilitation counselor was cleverly side-stepped in Chapter 4 by continual reference to the statement that the task set before the Institute was to consider the role in rehabilitation of psychologists trained at the doctoral level. This, it appears, is to beg the question. Equally as evasive on page 72 is the statement: "The Institute did not *choose* to reach any conclusions as to whether or not rehabilitation counseling should be viewed as an integral part of the profession of psychology." These may have been the tasks and choices of the group, but reality indicates that many psychologically trained persons below the doctoral level have and will continue to contribute to the concerted effort directed toward physical and mental rehabilitation, and such contributions must be accepted, dealt with, and not ignored.

The work of the Institute in crystallizing the principles and assumptions underlying rehabilitation into 12 areas is a major contribution. These may well become the 12 commandments that guide the future growth of psychological service in rehabilitation. They form an excellent philosophical statement and are basic in the training and development of all rehabilitation workers.

The attention given to the problems and needs of research is well directed and will be valuable for stimulating additional research efforts. For those not primarily oriented or interested in research, the very careful delineation of the problems can be of help in guiding the handling of reality problems in work situations.

Without a doubt *Psychology and Rehabilitation* can help awaken interests in a variety of rehabilitation areas. Special attention to one of the addresses given at the Institute, included at the back of the book, "Next Steps In Rehabilitation," by Howard Rusk, should stimulate and support the ego of *all* rehabilitation personnel who in their own ways are personally and professionally concerned with the future of rehabilitation as a service to people.—RALPH A. SCHOFIELD, *Psychologist, Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis.*

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION: ITS DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION, by Carroll L. Shartle. Third edition. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. 384 pp. $8.65.

WHAT IS OFTEN less accurately said of speakers may surely be said of this volume: it "needs no introduction" to most of the professional audience. The earlier editions (1946, 1952) of Dr. Shartle's pioneering text have given shape and substance to much of the training and practice in the once rather nebulous realm of occupational information. In this edition, the author undertakes to emphasize "the development, significance, and use of information that meets quality standards and appears to have maximum significance for persons who deal professionally with pupils, students, counselees, and job seekers."

Structurally, the revision rearranges much of the former text into a more nearly general-to-specific sequence, adds two new chapters, and incorporates other passages characterizing some newer materials and concepts. Topically, it retains the general nature and uses of occupational information; the formal structure and classification of the world of work; standard methods of developing, obtaining, evaluating, and using types of information; and special aspects

relating to the handicapped and to military service. Especially noteworthy among the supplementary features are the abundance of illustrative materials, well-selected and up-to-date supplementary readings, and practical learning exercises for each chapter. (A change in Figure 82 is not accompanied by an obviously intended change of text, but the basic sense of the discussion is clear.)

This is an enriched book. The new chapter on values, surveying representative studies of their relevance to the world of work and to occupational choice, is unique among occupational information texts. A systematic treatment and emphasis of values within the context of "occupational information" has been needed. At other points attention is newly called to Super's vocational development "life stages," to "more and more emphasis in recent years . . . on the sociological aspects of job performance," and to the view that "from a psychological framework newer approaches hold a great deal of promise." The last comment prefaces a brief summary of Roe's occupational classification scheme and Super's suggestion of a third—enterprise—dimension. The new chapter on occupational requirements contributes a well-organized introduction to ratings and measurements of kinds and amounts of human attributes required for entry and "success" in various occupations. It characterizes judiciously the approaches offered by employers, the Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales, the Army General Classification Test, multifactored aptitude tests, interest and personality inventories, the United States Employment Service's recent "Estimates of Worker Trait Requirements for 4,000 Jobs," and the author himself. Primarily descriptive, this chapter's

array of available methods and materials provides a suitable starting point for graduate students' exploration and a convenient review source for perhaps some older hands.

This is also a traditional book. The "work performed" is invariably the "heart of the job." There are but two "generally recognized methods" of obtaining original occupational information—conventional job analysis and survey by questionnaire or personal interview. "Job analysis" and "worker analysis" must uniformly be viewed as separate categories and processes. The significance of "occupational requirements" is limited essentially to chances for employer selection and "success" without particular reference to the broader and deeper requirements of self-realization. While such concepts have served long and well for many personnel purposes, they nevertheless underestimate, for example, the dynamics of the meaning of work, sociological and psychological methods as original sources of occupational information, the reciprocal processes and effects of job-worker interaction in defining the "job," and, above all from a counseling standpoint, the implications of the counselee's *own* needs and perceptions for exploring and evaluating occupational alternatives.

There is also, to the reviewer, an incompletely fulfilled promise in the book. If psychological framework, vocational development theory, sociological emphases, and value considerations suggest constructive lines of development—and who will doubt it?—they demand reappraisal of the "quality standards" themselves and consequently of the "maximum significance" of existing occupational information materials and practices. But in general, the "enriching" perspectives of this edition have been grafted onto the "traditional" body of criteria, materials, and practices without marked critical intercomparison. For example, the fact that the D.O.T., the Entry Occupational Classification, and the Estimates of Worker Trait Requirements have little in common with the concept of "role," needs to be made explicit and the implications explored. A revision which recognizes the emergence of significant developments, and even that "perhaps someday most of our present formats of occupational information will be replaced," could make more substantial use of this vantage ground to identify deficiencies and problems, redefine concepts and issues, suggest avenues of research, and thereby help to vitalize materials and practices in this obviously lagging area of our work.

In summary, the third edition is a distinct improvement in content, organization, and currency. It will be of even greater value to both professional personnel workers and graduate students than earlier editions have been, especially because of the enlargement of its frame of reference for viewing occupational information.—DAVID H. PRITCHARD, *Staff Counseling Psychologist, Veterans Administration Central Office, Washington, D. C.*

COUNSELLING THE CATHOLIC: MODERN TECHNIQUES AND EMOTIONAL CONFLICTS, by George Hagmaier, & Robert Gleason. New York: Sheed and Ward, 1959. xiv + 301 pp. $4.50.

A GREAT DEAL of practical counseling in areas of real significance is done by clergymen with their parishioners and their clients. This counseling is done within a systematic framework of theological knowledge.

That such counseling could be made more effective—much more effective—if the advances in knowledge of dynamic concepts of human personality and of counseling processes were presented in a book which clergymen could understand and use, is the theme of this book.

The goal that the authors hoped to achieve was the building of certain attitudes and skills in the counselor: deeper insight into unconscious motivations behind much of human behavior; the conviction that most human conflicts are far more complex than they appear; a reluctance to jump quickly to "diagnostic" conclusions about the reasons and remedies for behavior difficulties; a readiness to listen more and say less in counseling relationships; a deeper grasp of the relationships and distinctions between emotional and religious, psychological and supernatural influences, and the ways in which both the priest counselor and his parishioner can take them into account.

The authors are ordained clergymen further ordained by various professional

degrees. One author is head of a department of theology in a leading Catholic university, the other an expert in pastoral counseling. Collaboration of this sort suggests that each may not have the whole answer in counseling the human being who has reached a point in handling his conflicts where he needs some outside help. One discipline learning from another is a good thing.

Instead of a kind of "pull-yourself-together" approach, the authors see the clergyman-counselor as a therapist who is to preside over the growth of self-reliance in his clients. The authors believe deeply in the inherent capacity of man to use intellect and reason as aids to self-knowledge. They believe that increased insight into one's unconscious motives and behavior enables a person to free his will from the toils of compulsive behavior, thereby encouraging ever freer and more responsible activity. They also believe that whatever contributes to the human equilibrium of a person will have its effects on the moral order. A basic postulate of the book is that "faith means most and works best when it functions in a mature, well-adjusted, emotionally healthy individual."

Historically, rational psychology has stressed the control and influence which the intellect and will should have over the passions. The authors do not minimize the role which the intellect, will, and grace can play in man's conscious attempt to live his life in accordance with the laws of God. By means of a multitude of examples, the authors demonstrated the ways in which the emotions influence, and even prohibit, the effective functioning of man's intellect and will.

Clients' problems of the sort which, because of their moral implications and overtones, are more likely to be focal for clerical counselors receive more emphasis than they do in ordinary texts—such problems as alcoholism, masturbation, homosexuality, and that variety of obsessive-compulsive neurosis, scrupulosity, which is found nearly always among people of very strong religious bent.

The authors say that when referring people for help, one should send them to a psychiatrist, a psychiatric social worker,

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or to a clinical psychologist. Many parts of the country now have counseling psychologists who contribute another resource group with fully adequate training that the priest can use effectively.

This is not a book which attempts to make the clergyman a sort of part-time therapist. It recognizes that his primary role is sacerdotal. But it stresses the fact that the clergyman is a person who is uniquely situated to accomplish, through his counseling, some effective changes in the personality of clients. This wise and compassionate book should help the intelligent practitioner. And the chapters on specific problems contain so much of relevance to Catholics in conflict, that the book might well be on the shelf of almost any general counselor who sees occasional Catholic clients.—WILLIAM D. WILKINS, *Professor of Education, New York University.*

ESSENTIALS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTING, by Lee J. Cronbach. Revised edition. New York: Harper & Bros., 1959. 636 pp. $7.00.

THE EARLIER edition of this book was reviewed February, 1951, in the predecessor of this magazine by J. C. Flanagan who gave it his over-all approval. The present edition emerges as a thoroughly competent and up-to-date piece of work, which crams a tremendous amount of research and valuable information into its teeming pages. It is a major effort by a leader in the measurement field which, by the hard work entailed in making a good thing better, deserves favorable comparison with the best the literature has to offer.

The original edition devoted the first hundred pages to basic concepts; the revision uses half again that number. Problems of the testing of ability and achievement took up the next hundred pages originally; now they consume the next 250 pages, the largest expansion of the book. The last section devoted to problems of measuring personality, interests, and attitudes took initially another 150 pages, whereas they now consume an even 200. Most of this enlargement has consisted in a careful and painstaking updating of research. Whereas Flanagan noted that over 70 per cent of the citations in the original edition were from the decade of the 40's, we now find that fully half of the 600 citations are from the 50's, or since the first edition appeared. This thoroughness in keeping up to date on all fronts of the expanding measurements area results in the happy situation that we are given information about the 1960 revision of the Stanford-Binet, McClelland's basic work in *n*-achievement, Gough's IPAR assessment of air force officers, and Buros' *Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook*, to indicate a few assorted instances.

The basic purposes of the book remain the same: to serve undergraduate and graduate students in the area of measurement in a survey rather than an exhaustive fashion. The book tends to make good consumers of tests and knowledgeable ones as well. It is obvious that it has been strengthened by the experience of the author with his own classes. The book patently demands something of the student, but if the public chooses books that all may read with ease it will end up with those that few may read with profit.

Criticizing a book of this degree of thoroughness and craftsmanship is apt to degenerate into nit-picking more useful for exposing the limitations of the reviewer than the volume itself. It seemed to this writer, however, that in some places the incisive, surgically brief style began to cut connective tissue as well as fat from the explanations and to require in the reader more familiarity with testing than he may have the first time around. There is definitely not enough about teacher-made tests or explanation of how the curious teacher goes about testing or assessment on his own. While several bows are made in the direction of testing achievement, motivation, creativity, and leadership, and the problem of identification of the gifted student, the *next* revision is likely to have more to say on these subjects. A bit more on Guilford's recent work on the structure of intellect would have been germane and useful. Although the book as a whole is remarkably free from error, there is an unfortunate repetition of the word "bandwidth" on line 18, page 602, which spoils the meaning of an otherwise brilliant paragraph of analogy. It is interesting to note that at least two of the faults found by the earlier reviewer,

(superficial treatment of the standard error of the mean of Stanford-Binet IQ's and superficiality in the section of achievement testing) have been carefully emended and most certainly improved.

Other changes from the former to the present edition reflect the decline of the Wechsler diagnostic patterns of interpretation and the obsolescence of the Bernreuter. Developments treated include the rise of testing standards, the improvement in the quality of information supplied by test makers, the *Technical Recommendations*, the reformulation of concepts of validity, the extensive validation of differential aptitude tests, the proliferation of personality assessment, the solid strides made in achievement testing, and clearer concepts of the uses and limitations of factor analysis and similar techniques. What changes are made from here on will be essentially reflections of changes and new directions in the testing movement as it comes of age, rather than the need for a better exposition of it. While some may not share the author's full belief in the efficacy of testing in all areas, everyone will be grateful for the lucid presentation. The scholarly and judicial atmosphere of the volume also tends to promote the confidence one has in its contents. This is a sound book to begin a decade which may prove significant for measurement and decisive for education.—J. C. Gowan, *Professor of Education, San Fernando State College, Northridge, California.*

Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale, Manual for the Third Revision, Form L-M, Lewis M. Terman & Maud A. Merrill. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960. xi + 363 pp. $5.00.

This book presents the rationale and manual for the latest revision of the Stanford-Binet Tests. Its aim is to provide "test users with a single scale that, while preserving the characteristic features of previous revisions, eliminates out-of-date content and improves general structure." It expects that the revision will perform with even more dependability than its predecessor. As is well known, Dr. Terman died before the completion of the revision but before his death the plans for the revision were already formulated and "were well on their way toward completion."

No basic changes were made in the revision. It is still an age scale and measures the same kind of mental activities as the original scale, mainly falling under the category of general intelligence. The changes are essentially in the subtests and their placement, and in certain improvements in the IQ Tables that eliminate atypical variability and make the IQ's for all ages comparable.

The 1960 revision incorporates in a single scale the best of the subtests from the L and M Forms of the 1937 scale. The 1960 revision is called the L-M Form. An alternate subtest is available at each age level in the event one of the regular subtests is unusable for the examinee. However, there is no alternate scale for the Stanford-Binet in this revision and, although an alternate form may not be used frequently, it is always good to have in readiness for retest purposes and for research.

The subtests to be included in the 1960 scale were based on item difficulty data obtained from samplings of tests administered in the 1950's. These data were compared with the 1937 standardization group data. The samplings for the 1960 revision included 4,498 subjects between ages $2^1/_2$ to 18, but were not proportionally distributed among the age groups. The sampling was not as complete as the original and may be a little too select. Also two carefully selected samplings of 100 six-year-olds and 100 15-year-olds gathered from two California communities were employed to test for item difficulty and placement. Much careful work seems to have been done in keeping the best test items and eliminating the worst.

This revision is not a complete restandardization. The norms are essentially based on the 1937 standardization with adjustments resulting from the data obtained in the more recent samplings. The removal of obsolete items and the revised placement of certain of the subtests should make for a general improvement of the Scale.

There are no validity data specific to the revision. Its validity is based upon the fact that the same type of tests are used as in the 1937 Scale. Because of the great amount of overlap and the careful selection of subtests to be used in the revision, the probability is

high that the validity of the revision will be at least equal to if not greater than the 1937 version.

The IQ Tables have been revised by Pinneau and make corrections for differences in the variability of each age level. The revised IQ is basically a standard deviation with a mean of 100 and a standard score of 16. This principle is similar to that in use for the WAIS and should make for improved interpretation of IQ levels.

The book includes a guide for administering and scoring the test. It also presents the usual cautions concerning test administration and appropriate remarks about the use of observations and the importance of attention to individual needs.

The book should serve its purposes very well. For any user of the revision it is a must. For students of intelligence testing it brings together succinctly the major outlines in the development of age scales and, if studied together with previous works on the subject, provides much important additional material.—BENJAMIN BALINSKY, *Sub-Chairman, Psychology Department, Baruch School, The City College, New York City.*

RECREATION ACTIVITIES FOR THE HANDICAPPED, by Frederick N. Chapman. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1960. 309 pp. $5.75.

THE PRIMARY focus and usefulness of this book lies in Part II (comprising 245 of the total of 309 pages), a description of more than 250 activities in 10 major areas including: arts and crafts, audio-visual, dramatics, hobbies and special interests, music, nature, social recreational, special events, and sports and games.

Part I includes a brief discussion of the psychology of disability, the role of recreation in a hospital program, and the need for active and continuing cooperation among the disciplines involved in total rehabilitation. The material is presented in a very sketchy manner and will not be very useful to readers who are not professionally oriented to the characteristics and problems of the handicapped. References to the literature on recreation in general and the psychological aspects of disability would be helpful at this point or in the general bibliography.

An "interest finder" type of questionnaire, a recreation calendar of special days which lend themselves to specific programs, a list of commercial firms and organizations in the recreation field, and an index of recreational activities by diagnostic groups are also included.

The comprehensive description of activities covers the equipment needed, procedures, possible modifications, and other information useful in program planning. Each activity is listed as being suitable for one or more of six diagnostic groupings: aged, children, general medical and surgical, mentally retarded, neuropsychiatric, and tubercular.

This reviewer has some serious reservations in respect to the author's method of classifying activities according to a diagnostic grouping. He states, "The vast majority of handicapped persons will fall into one or more of the six diagnostic groupings for recreational program purposes. The six groupings are intended only as a guide for the person who is responsible for recreational planning with the handicapped, but not as a clinical or as a scientific chart of diagnostic arrangement. Some persons are afflicted with multiple or dual disorders and, of course, have a multiple or dual problems."

Grouping recreational activities by diagnostic classifications tends to disregard the wide variation in individual interests, assets, and limitations within each disability group. The author's method of classifying activities could encourage a recreation worker who is not psychologically oriented to exclude desirable and suitable activities from the recreation program.

For example: Clay modeling, crayoning, hand puppets are listed as appropriate for the mental retardate. Finger painting, finger puppets, painting are not included. Finger painting, creative writing, coin collecting are among the activities listed as suitable for the tuberculous. According to the author's classification, this disability group could not benefit from painting and drawing, correspondence courses, magic, stamp collecting, patient's council, and newspaper activities. The "interest finder" technique, described by the author as a "key to program planning," is apparently indicated for the aged and general medical surgical type of patient only. The author

does not discuss the rationale for these arbitrary activity groupings—major weakness of an otherwise comprehensive resource aid. Certainly, in recreation, which attempts among other aims to develop a higher level of social interaction, individuals should not be segregated by disabilities, which often, in themselves, do not limit participation in a wide variety of activities. The competent recreation therapist, like other rehabilitation personnel, deals with an individual who possesses a disability, not a disabled individual.

A minor criticism could be made about the annotated bibliography. The author includes the 1958 edition of the authoritative Scott's *Standard Postage Stamp Catalogue.* However there have been at least two later editions than the *1950 Boy Scout Handbook for Boys,* and a note to the reader that supplements are available for the 1953 edition of the *Educational Film Guide* would be helpful.

In general this book will be a useful addition to the reference library in a recreation program. Although the emphasis is on hospital activities, the resourceful individual could adapt most of them to the particular rehabilitation setting in which he operates.—ABRAHAM JACOBS, *Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.*

GRADUATE EDUCATION IN PSYCHOLOGY, prepared by the Editorial Committee (Anne Roe, Chairman, John W. Gustad, Bruce V. Moore, Sherman Ross, & Marie Skodak). Washington, D. C.: The American Psychological Association, 1959. 97 pp.

THIS REPORT was prepared from notes and written reports of the Conference on Graduate Education in Psychology, sponsored by the Educational Training Board of the American Psychological Association, Miami Beach, Florida, November 27–December 7, 1958. Using prepared documentation, the discussants organized themselves in groups under the general chairmanship of Professor Kenneth Clark. Documentation concerned previous reports about such matters as internship requirements for clinical psychology, the Sears Committee report on accrediting, and definitions of issues and problems from the 95 departments of psychology which offer a Ph.D. degree, the state associations, and the boards and committees of the associations.

The conferees were selected from the nominations of each department offering a doctoral program. The issues were organized under five major topics: the roles of psychologists, the common core, specialty training, sub-doctoral training, and controls. Opening remarks were made by Joseph M. Bobbitt of the National Institute of Mental Health identifying some of the difficulties stemming from parallel development of psychology as a science and as a profession.

In Chapter 4 on the roles of psychologists, careful identification of future demands for psychologists (*e.g.*, increasing birth rate and social demands for services) are clearly identified, as well as related shortages in other specialties. The guiding principle of flexibility and desirable innovation in curriculum development was stated and restated, and the psychologist's unique contribution of technical competence in research and evaluation was also repeatedly stressed as desirable of continuance. Having clearly established the Ph.D. psychologist as the competent specialist, considerable attention was given to the need for non-doctoral trainees to work in simpler and related specialties. The discussion on common core of psychology training centered attention on the "strong acceptance of the idea that the defining characteristic of the Ph.D. psychologist was his research training" (p. 44).

For the non-degree psychologist this term was used, "technical specialty for activities requiring less training" (p. 54). Chapter 8 on controls of professional services and practitioners is an excellent declaration of standards of professional practice. And the discussion led to the consensus that some form of accreditation is necesary concerning the professional aspects of psychology. There was also a consensus that at present the accreditation procedures should be continued. This report is an excellent statement of the professional development, present status, and the desirable flexibility in training and professional development anticipated for future years.—E. G. WILLIAMSON, *Dean of Students and Professor of Psychology, University of Minnesota.*

Publications . . . in brief

THOMAS M. MAGOON

The Mentally Ill Parent and His Child

When a Parent is Mentally Ill: What to Say to Your Child, Helene S. Arnstein, 1960. Child Study Association of America, 9 East 89th Street, New York 28, N. Y. 47 pp. $.50.

This pamphlet is another in the series published by the Child Study Association and focused upon common problems in family life and child rearing as well as less common but particularly critical problems such as those involved with divorce, death, mental illness, and the like.

The pamphlet opens with several incidents of parent-child interactions which illustrate the complexity of the problem, followed by some general guides applicable to all age levels of children. The remainder of the pamphlet is divided for instructional purposes into children's age levels—infant, toddler, preschool (3–6), school age (7–11), and the young adolescent (12–17). In each section the reader is sensitized to the potential emotional impact of parental mental illness on the child in terms of the child's particular characteristics at that level of development. Related topics include such difficult yet so concrete situations as parental resistance to hospitalization, preparing children for questions of their friends, and preparing for the parent's return home.

The material is very readable, very brief (although other references are provided), and its concreteness should make a valuable resource to which counselors may refer parents.

Women in Part-Time Jobs

Part-Time Employment for Women, Women's Bureau Bulletin 273, 1960. Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, USGPO, Washington 25, D. C. 53 pp. $.30.

The evidence of part-time work in our economy has been increasing, partly as a function of the growth in the trade and service industries—industries which have consistently reflected much part-time employment. This Women's Bureau bulletin depicts the role of women in this trend. The content includes characteristics of women part-time workers, causes of part-time employment, industrial and occupational sources of part-time jobs, future trends in part-time employment, and a concluding section on guidance of women seeking part-time work. Part-time employment is defined as employment for less than a 35-hour work week.

Interesting findings include the following: 20 per cent of all employees are part-time workers, women constitute about 60 per cent of the part-time labor force, and about 30 per cent of women workers were part-time employees. The report indicates that the reasons for part-time employment status were typically non-economic. The most common are demands of home and school duties and non-interest in full-time work. Wholesale and retail trade, private household work, and service industries about equally share in composing over 80 per cent of the part-time women workers.

The utilization of increasing proportions of part-time workers (male as well as female) appears as a stable trend which offers great opportunity to the individual plus contributing greater flexibility to business and industrial practices.

Retirement Practices and Programs

Industry's Interest in the Older Worker and the Retired Employee, M. T. Wermel, & Geraldine M. Beideman (Eds.), 1960. Benefits and Insurance Research Center, Industrial Relations Section, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, Calif. 35 pp. $1.00.

This booklet presents selected papers from the proceedings of a conference sponsored by the California Institute of Technology. The conference grew out of, on the one hand, the Institute's studies of industrial retirement practices, benefits and preparation and, on the other, industry's interest in and need for guidance in developing effective retirement programs. The topics of the selected papers include the following: Some Economic Implications of Our Aging Population, The National Interest in the Older Worker and the Retired Employee, Programs of Preparation for Retirement, Industry Programs to Promote Employees' Satisfactory Retirement, and Responsibility of Industry toward Older Workers.

The first paper noted such less well-known trends as the lengthening of retirement periods and the retirement of an increasing proportion of those over 65 years of age. The paper on retirement preparation plans outlined the Tennessee Valley Authority's retirement preparation program in some detail. One budgetary feature which led to earlier retirements once the minimum retirement age was passed was the payment by the Authority of retirement benefits at age 65 that were as high or higher than those formerly paid at the maximum retirement age of 70.

The last paper presents a pre-retirement program conducted by Retirement Advisors Incorporated. This program initiates pre-retirement planning five years before retirement and concentrates on sensitizing the worker to the nature of the problems he may encounter and various solutions to them. Part of the planning is implemented by sending to each worker every three months a new booklet presenting one problem and its possible solutions.

The report presents a picture of a stimulating conference on a problem of growing universal concern. When will the day arrive that retirement planning will be initially presented—albeit in very tentative form—during the original vocational counseling experiences with the individual?

Handbook for the New Teacher

A Handbook for the New Teacher, W. Abraham, 1960. Rinehart and Co., 232 Madison Ave., New York 16, N. Y. 60 pp. $1.00.

This handbook, another in the publisher's Education Pamphlet Series, is obviously intended for the teacher just entering the field. It is generally illustrated with references to elementary level instructors but the points made by the author are quite applicable at any educational level.

The chapter headings are eye catching and generally self-explanatory (Where did you come from? Where are you going? On your way; no man is an island; nobody knows the trouble I'm in). The body of the pamphlet hits hard at what might be called a step-by-step exploration of self and environment as the initial teaching position commences. For example . . . "What do I sound like? Do I really know? Have I listened to myself on a good tape recording? Did I like what I heard? Did I do something about what I didn't like?"

The material suggests a new approach to occupational information—information geared to (a) recognize and strengthen the individual's identification with the occupation and (b) build upon the individual's training and preparation to sensitize him (or her) to the inevitable questions and problems that confront the new staff person.

College Enrollment Projection

Methodology of Enrollment Projections for Colleges and Universities, L. J. Lins, 1960. American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, Publications Office, American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Ave., Washington 6, D. C. 67 pp. $2.00.

In a period characterized by consistent statements of enrollments doubling in x number of years—statements perhaps reflecting pride, apprehension,

or both—a publication devoted to the methodology of enrollment projection is most timely. The report stresses methodology as opposed to particular projected outcomes themselves. The five chapters include considerations in enrollment projection, enrollment projection techniques, short-range estimates of enrollment, long-range estimates of enrollment, and modes of data presentation. The report concludes with a 58-item bibliography.

The author appropriately stresses the dependence of projection analyses upon the identification of, and answers to, many questions which bear upon enrollment trends. The moral here is a clear one—the more specific the institution can make its short and long run goals and its mode of achieving them, the easier and more accurate will be its enrollment projections. This emphasizes the non-statistical nature of many issues which bear upon projections.

Methods of projection are several, including curve fitting, ratio method, cohort survival methods (age survival or grade succession), and correlation analysis. Discussion of short-range enrollment estimates refers to those estimates used for annual and biennial budgetary and educational planning. Long-range projections are illustrated with an enrollment projection analysis for a hypothetical higher educational institution.

The presentation of 1960 census data should simplify projection-building which, if not already a continually employed institutional practice, should shortly become one.

Perhaps a less concrete, but equally practical facet of developing enrollment projections is that of creating an understanding and accepting response to the accumulated data. Predictions are of little value if they are not acted upon.

Association Activities

CARL McDANIELS, EDITOR

The Branches in Highlight

The Personnel and Guidance Association of Greater Philadelphia

PERHAPS there is no more ambitious undertaking for a branch than to act as host to the APGA National Convention. The Personnel and Guidance Association of Greater Philadelphia is the most recent branch to complete this task. The city of Philadelphia first had this opportunity in 1917 when the fifth national meeting of the National Vocational Guidance Association was held there. Cooperating with the various Convention officials, the Branch concentrated interest, energy, and time for more than two years in planning the 1960 Convention. Working together for a common goal, "the best Convention ever," brought members of the Branch into closer contact with each other than ever before. The group found great satisfaction in creating the framework for a national meeting of more than 4,000 people. The need to recruit additional personnel for the Convention team helped to promote professional liaison with counselors in nearby Pennsylvania towns, such as Easton, Allentown, and Bethlehem. Over three-fourths of these guidance personnel contacted outside of Philadelphia responded to the invitation to serve at the Convention.

As a result of the contact with APGA for the first time, many local members expressed new interest and pride in the scope and magnitude of their national organization. For the Philadelphia Branch, the Convention of 1960 presented great challenges and problems, but also yielded great rewards and satisfactions.

One of the first seven chartered branches of NVGA, the Personnel and Guidance Association of Greater Philadelphia was originally organized in 1920 as the Vocational Guidance Association of Philadelphia and Vicinity. Dr. Arthur J. Jones, Professor Emeritus of the University of Pennsylvania and still active in Branch activities, was president and a charter member of this group. In 1956 the Branch applied for and received a charter in APGA. The officers for 1960–1961 are: President—Helen L. Corey, Director of Guidance and Dean of Girls, Drexel Hill Junior High School; President-Elect—Helen Faust, Division of Pupil Personnel Services, Board of Education, Philadelphia; Recording Secretary—Katherine Cavanaugh, Counselor, Clifton Heights Schools; Past-President—Margaret P. Morgan, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania; Corresponding Secretary—Norman H. Hughes, Counselor, Marple-Newtown High School, Newtown Square, Pennsylvania; Treasurer—Cletus J. McBride, Pierce School of Business Administration, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

The Personnel and Guidance Association of Greater Philadelphia has the central purpose of providing its members with the means for continued professional growth. Staff members of the city's two large universities offering graduate training in the field and numerous specialists from public and private agencies provide the Branch with a particularly rich resource of active professional leadership.

The Branch meets four times a year for dinner meetings and discussions at local universities or colleges. During the past year speakers included Dr. Dugald S. Arbuckle, Boston University; Dr. Donald E. Super, Teachers College, Columbia University; and Mr. Newton Ryerson, Personnel Director, Sun Oil Company.

The National Rehabilitation Association

The National Rehabilitation Association (NRA) was organized in 1925 by professional rehabilitation workers. Beginning with less than 250 members, the Association now has a membership of over 16,000, about equally divided between professional and lay people. The professional members include physicians, rehabilitation counselors, therapists, social workers, nurses, administrators, etc.

NRA is concerned with the rehabilitation of all handicapped persons without regard to disability or age. Its program and activities may be classified as (a) professional, (b) social action (legislative), and (c) public education.

The Association has 45 affiliated chapters designed to carry out the purposes of the Association on a state and local level. Its nine regional organizations are primarily responsible for holding annual meetings that introduce the members to the latest advances in rehabilitation. Recently, the Association amended its Constitution and By-laws to provide for the creation of professional divisions. A rehabilitation counseling division numbering over 1,300 members has been formed, and other professional divisions are under consideration.

NRA is regularly engaged in a variety of meetings and activities with leaders in management, labor, government, the various professions, and numerous civic and community groups for the common purpose of having all handicapped people receive rehabilitation services.

Organizationally, the Association is governed by a representative delegate assembly. It is administered by a 20-man board of directors and its day-to-day program is managed by an executive director.

NRA publishes the bi-monthly *Journal of Rehabilitation*, an Association Newsletter, and a Legislative Newsletter. Its *Journal* is the oldest publication concerned with all aspects of rehabilitation.

The entire program of NRA rests on the assumption that all handicapped people must have opportunity to be productive, responsible, and happy members of society.

The National Rehabilitation Association realizes that comprehensive rehabilitation services require wholesome personnel practices that encourage the hiring of qualified handicapped people. The Association also recognizes that good guidance services are an important aspect of rehabilitation. To these ends, NRA has encouraged its membership who are interested in personnel and guidance problems as they relate to rehabilitation of the handicapped to avail themselves of the program, publications, and activities of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Many NRA members hold membership in APGA. Both organizations look forward to the many common interests and efforts they will support and engage in, in the years ahead.

NRA's national headquarters is at 1025 Vermont Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C.

CORRECTION: *The article* The American Psychological Association *in "A Series on Related Professional Groups" (September, 1960,* Journal*) contained a serious if inadvertent error. In listing the APA Divisions we managed to define engineering psychologists as concerned with psychological aspects of disability. While this at long last answers the question of the nature of the work of the engineering psychologist, it doesn't make anyone particularly happy. We are quite sorry and offer the list of APA Divisions as it should have appeared*—Ed.

1. Division of General Psychology
2. Division on the Teaching of Psychology
3. Division of Experimental Psychology
5. Division on Evaluation and Measurement
7. Division on Developmental Psychology
8. Division of Personality and Social Psychology
9. The Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues—A Division of the APA
10. Division on Esthetics
12. Division of Clinical Psychology
13. Division of Consulting Psychology
14. Division of Industrial and Business Psychology
15. Division of Educational Psychology
16. Division of School Psychologists
17. Division of Counseling Psychology
18. Division of Psychologists in Public Service
19. Division of Military Psychology
20. Division on Maturity and Old Age
21. The Society of Engineering Psychologists—A Division of the APA
22. National Council on Psychological Aspects of Disability—A Division of the APA

WHO'S WHO

—and Where

We are eager to reflect in this column news of the professional activities and job changes of our members. Please keep us informed. Notice should be sent to the attention of the Assistant Editor.—Ed.

ROBERT E. HOYE has left his position as Superintendent of the Frontier Regional School District, Deerfield, Massachusetts, to become a Staff Associate for Science Research Associates in the Rhode Island-Eastern Massachusetts area.

CHARLES HARVEY MILEY assumed his duties on June 1, 1960, as Dean of Student Personnel Services at the Junior College of Broward County in Fort Lauderdale, Florida. This new institution, co-supported by the State of Florida and Broward County, opened on September 6, 1960, with an estimated first-year enrollment of 500 to 600 students.

EMILY L. LEEDY, a Visiting Teacher with the Parma Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio, has accepted a Teaching Fellowship at Ohio University, Athens.

LOU UTTER, Associate in Education Guidance, Bureau of Guidance, New York State Education Department, Albany, New York, spent the midsummer session at the University of Bridgeport, Connecticut, teaching courses in Organization and Administration of the Guidance Program and Guidance Principles and Practices and Case Studies in Counseling.

ELLIS WEITZMAN, who was formerly Professor of Psychology, has been appointed Chairman of the Department of Psychology and also Chairman of the Division of Social Sciences, The American University, Washington, D. C.

ROY E. WARMAN has left his position as Counseling Psychologist at the Testing and Counseling Center, The University of Texas, Austin, to serve as Assistant Professor of the Department of Psychology at Iowa State University, Ames.

FRED HOWELL, former Guidance Counselor, Jarrett Junior High School, Springfield, Missouri, assumed the position of Director of Guidance for the Canton, Illinois, Public Schools on August 31.

ALLEN M. SCHMULLER, Coordinator of Student Personnel Services, Texas Woman's University, Denton, had his new book, *Guidance in Education,* published this summer by the Texas Women's University Press. Dr. Schmuller is also co-author of *Guidance in Today's Schools,* which was published by John Wiley & Sons in 1959.

JOHN PRUSKI, formerly a Counseling Psychologist with the Veterans Administration, is now a member of the Ohio Pardon and Parole Commission. Appointed to this full-time post by Governor Michael V. DiSalle, Dr. Pruski is the first psychologist to serve on this commission.

LOTTIE MARIE WHITE, who was Guidance Counselor at Woodbridge Township, New Jersey, has been promoted to the position of Vice Principal of Fords Junior High School, Woodbridge.

ROBERT E. EATON, Assistant Professor of Education, is Coordinator of a new training program for high school counselors at the University of Redlands, Redlands, California. Inaugurated in June, 1960, the full-year, interdisciplinary, graduate program leads to certification under California's Pupil Personnel Credential and an M.A. in education with a major in guidance.

JACK I. BARDON has left his position as School Psychologist and Coordinator of Special Services for the Princeton, New Jersey, Public Schools to serve as Associate Professor of Education, Rutgers University.

The GAP Gage: Let's "Get It Done in Sixty-One"

DINNY DUNSMOOR, DIRECTOR
APGA PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ADVANCEMENT PROGRAM

GAP continues to run along pretty much in stride. Thus far we've been able to get over every hurdle as we have come to it, though we've scraped our shins a time or two, and we may even have to do so again, though certainly we hope not. But, we're going to finish the race on our feet—and win it, too.

This year's major goal of GAP is to "Complete the Completion," to eliminate entirely our construction loan, to make our regular mortgage and interest payments, and to reduce the mortgage still further if we can, since unnecessary interest increases the ultimate cost of our new APGA home. At any rate, it is the goal and hope of the Executive Council to complete our active campaign for GAP funds as of the end of the current fiscal year, April 30, 1961—if, we are able to raise some $37,000 in cash gifts by that time.

APGA is now well along in the process of completion alterations on our HQ property in Washington, D. C., which will make possible its fullest utilization and put it in first class shape, commensurate with our stature as a first class professional organization of 12,000 plus members. This includes also the purchase of adequate furniture and equipment needed to maintain and extend the high quality of service being rendered to our membership, the profession, and the public by our fine HQ Staff. To pay for all these is what we mean when we say "Complete the Completion."

As so clearly pointed out by APGA Treasurer McCully in the June issue of *The Guidepost*, we can and must get APGA's GAP "over the hump" in 1960–1961. Life subscription pledges still to be paid and $2 from each member's dues will provide a sizeable amount of cash for GAP expenses to be met between now and April 30, 1961. But, we still must raise $37,000 in additional cash gifts—individual contributions, branch and association gifts, memorial gifts, special gifts—by that time if we are to be in a position to close out the GAP campaign and have APGA "over the hump."

Let's face it: To raise $37,000 additional cash in the months remaining in this fiscal year—about $5,000 per month—is a big job. It's too big a job for any one of us alone or for even a group such as the Executive Council, the Branch Presidents, the State Supervisors, the Committee Chairmen, or even a Special Committee. But, if every member would just "kick in" with a cash gift of $10, or even $5, the job would be easy.

The next big hurdle to be gotten over—and we hope it can be taken in stride—comes on October 28, when we must make another payment of $6,500, plus interest, on our construction loan. Also, there will be many "completion bills" to be taken care of at that time. On this we need your help, now. So, make your "Completion Contribution" today. If you've already made one earlier, why not make another one now, if you can. Many of us have.

Having made your own "Completion Contribution," please won't you as a good APGA 'n get another member or two to send in theirs, too. If only a few work at the job, the drive will be ineffective or perhaps even futile. "For one who will lift, there are 10 who will lean," as the saying goes. But you as one of the "lifters" should do your best to reduce the number of "leaners" among your colleagues or professional acquaintances.

Your check or cash should be sent to "APGA GAP FUND," American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1605 New Hampshire Avenue, N. W., Washington 9, D. C. *Make it big.* Let's "get the job done in sixty-one."

From the Executive Director

In a recent issue of the *Guidepost* appeared a write-up on opportunities to submit research proposals under Title VII of the National Defense Education Act that would be valuable in guidance and counseling. About a month ago, a prominent member of APGA asked me to identify possible candidates for a position in counselor education in one of the major universities; the person had to have a strong research background.

These two instances are connected. In the case of the National Defense Education Act proposals, members of the NDEA staff stated that they had not received proposals in the guidance and counseling area. This has later been substantiated by persons in the Cooperative Research Branch of the Office of Education. In the case of the person for the higher level counselor education position there was a feeling on the part of the university concerned that a prominent person in counselor education should have a good background in research.

At this time, some proposals have been submitted for guidance and counseling research, and it is realized, of course, that there is an appreciable amount of research in guidance in progress around the country. In the case of the university opening, the dean of the college has not yet found the person he believes suitable to fill the spot. I think that the two instances, despite the research work that is in progress, indicate a great need in our area of professional work for substantial research. Many of the studies that are in progress are excellent. Yet, there appears to be a decided need for greater research activities in the field of guidance, particularly research that will be rather basic to the work of counseling.

With the development of guidance in the elementary school, research needs will be emphasized. Research is needed at the elementary school level not only in the nature of the ways in which guidance work should best be carried out, but also concerned with the nature of child development, growth needs, ways to affect behavior favorably, and the particular applications that can most effectively be made of guidance methods and instruments.

In short, the field of guidance is in need of a marked increase in significant research. The kind of research that has been termed "action research" is important and necessary; all of us should be carrying out immediate research activities of this nature in school and college situations. The larger need, however, is for the type of research that could be termed as more fundamental to the work of guidance, particularly in the years ahead.

Research in guidance has a distinct social flavor in the sense that we must continually seek to improve the work of guidance in order to assure that the responsibilities of this basic part of our social life in this country are met.

At the same time, one must point out that there are many research findings that we could very well be applied to our work but that are rather difficult to grasp because we do not have facilities for handling this vast quantity of research material. For example, available research on handicapped children and youth and research on gifted students constitute materials that very well could be used in the work of the counselor and of other guidance personnel because they tell us a great deal about the persons we are working with in school and other settings. These research activities in areas immediately related to the work of the counselor should receive a great deal more attention, and possibly some of the imaginative people in the guidance field will be able to devise ways in which research findings can be made more available to those who are actually working on the job. The advent of multiple means of disseminating information may open up ways to provide guidance personnel with handy means of becoming acquainted with significant research in their

particular areas. The probable development of national centers for research information should also help in this direction.

The problem of disseminating information applies also to the general increase in knowledge. We are accustomed to discussing the difficulties of erecting school and college curricula that will encompass the significant part of a vast array of increased knowledge in many fields. We should apply this same concern to the increase in knowledge of human development, ways of working effectively with people, and knowledge about the vastly changing world around us. It will be very easy for a counselor to become out of touch with the kind of world in which children and youth are developing if we do not have ways of keeping aware of these changes that are occurring. This is basically a problem of the dissemination and assimilation of the quantity of knowledge that is developing in our own area of professional concern and in those areas of life that relate to our work.

This brings us to the point of the professional nature of the work of the counselor, the school psychologist, and the school social worker. It is encumbent upon all persons in the guidance and student personnel areas to assist others in understanding the professional nature of our work. Of prime importance in these months and immediate years ahead will be the concentration on those affairs, behavior, and emotional development of students and others that will contribute best to their growth and greatness. The emergence of the status of student personnel workers, particularly counselors, as bona fide professional workers in our country will undoubtedly be tested further in the courts. The principle of privileged communication of the counselor will surely be tested, and it is only a matter of time and circumstance that will dictate when and where this test will occur. The status of student personnel records already is being tested in the courts, and you are aware that the principle of civil liability of the counselor has already been tested. The concern of the courts with counseling and other aspects of student personnel work indicates the emergence and recognition of the professional nature of our field.

This first full year of the 1960's indicates that this decade may well be the period in which our society tests the principle of human development in a setting of freedom of choice through the assistance of professional counseling, guidance, and personnel work.—Arthur A. Hitchcock

Call for Research Papers

for the

1961 APGA Convention

APGA MEMBERS are invited to prepare research reports for a program of papers on significant research in the personnel and guidance field to be presented at the APGA Convention in Denver, Colorado, March 27–30. The authors of those reports accepted by the Committee on Review and Selection of Research Papers will be invited to read them at the Convention as part of this program. The following instructions are given for those members interested in submitting their research reports for review by the Committee.

- To be considered for acceptance on the program, interested persons should immediately notify the Committee Chairman of their intent to submit papers.

- Manuscripts should be prepared in full length in final, edited form. They should be typed double space in triplicate on $8^1/_2 \times 11$ bond paper, with a one inch margin.

- The length of the manuscript must not exceed 15 minutes reading time. The paper to be read may be a narrative summary of the research, if preferred, and may be accompanied by a duplicated, full technical report of the study. This option frees the speaker to talk about the meaning of the research rather than reciting a series of significant numbers. People employing this option will be expected to submit to the Committee both the paper to be read and the technical report to be handed out to the audience.

- The following information must accompany the report: name of the person who will deliver the report; his or her title; institution or agency represented; address (street, city, and state); and plans to hand out complete study reports or use visual aids.

- Final copy must be received by the Committee Chairman *not later than December 15, 1960.*

- Send manuscripts to: WILBERT J. DIPBOYE
  Committee on Review and Selection of Research Papers
  School of Education
  Syracuse University
  Syracuse, New York

The American Personnel and Guidance Association

1960–1961 Directory

of

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The Use of Discriminant Analysis in the Prediction of Scholastic Performance

After reviewing more than two decades of ever-increasing activity in the prediction of academic success, Travers [9] conceded that the multiple correlations attained in 1940 were in all likelihood maximal and encouraged the perusal and application of additional and relatively untried techniques in the prediction of educational outcome. The persistent inability of investigators to improve the accuracy of their predictions of academic success and the specificity of the findings of reported prediction studies would appear to be, at least in part, the result of both the exclusive interpretation of college success in terms of semester grades and the nature of the statistical procedures commonly employed.

Regression analysis, both simple and multiple, has been applied extensively in problems of a predictive nature. As Rulon [8] suggests, regression techniques are designed to answer the question "how can I analyze these data so I may determine the group in which the individual *will perform best?*" In effect, one obtains a measure of relative efficiency within a group, *i.e.,* at what point on an achievement continuum ranging from poor to excellent will a particular student fall? It may be rewarding to ask a different question of the same set of data, viz., "how can I analyze these data so I may determine the group which an individual *is most like?*" [8]. Discriminant analysis may be viewed as one answer to this question.

While the multiple regression technique has been used almost exclusively on problems of scholastic achievement, the application of discriminant analysis to scholastic problems of a predictive nature has comparatively little precedent [1–6, 10, 11]. The majority of these studies, however, deal with the prediction of curriculum choice rather than the more general problem of success (*i.e.,* survival versus attrition), the major focus of this study. It is hoped that the findings of this study may give evidence of the utility of a new and powerful research tool in an area that has and will continue to assume increasing importance.

The *mutiple discriminant analysis* of preadmission and first semester data will be used as a basis for the prediction of membership in one of three academic groups: scholastic failures; terminal prospects; and transfer candidates in a program of general education at Boston University Junior College. The criteria for group membership were based on end-of-year decisions and were defined as follows:

1. *Failures*—dismissals and academic withdrawals;
2. *Terminals*—students eligible to return for their sophomore year only;
3. *Transfers*—students who qualify for direct transfer to, or an elective at, a degree-granting college in the University.

In addition to permitting predictions concerning group membership, the method also reveals any existing factors responsible for scholastic success and failure.

While the use of regression analysis would have been made possible by arbitrarily arranging "terminals" at a predetermined distance between "failures" and "transfers" and assigning each student to various points

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This study was completed as part of a more comprehensive investigation under the direction of Dr. Ralph J. Garry as part of the requirements for the Ed.D degree at the School of Education of Boston University. The author gratefully acknowledges the statistical advice and assistance of Miss Sylvia Fleisch, Office of Statistical Research, Boston University.

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along this criterion continuum, discriminant analysis was used because it permits the testing of the possible collinearity of the three groups in each of the four test spaces (*i.e.*, whether a second discriminant exists or not) and the defining of regions for the classification of individuals into groups.

Subjects

The entering class of 1957 Boston University Junior College freshmen provided the data for the analysis. The discriminant analysis data obtained from the original population sample were then used to predict the group membership of a cross-validation sample comprised of students from the preceding year's class.

Ideally, the discriminant function data obtained from the original sample, the entering freshman class of 1957, might have been used to predict the group membership of the entering class that followed. This would have meant, however, a waiting period of one year before the number of hits and misses could have been tallied. An alternate possibility which avoided the time lag was that of using the preceding class as a cross-validation sample. With the exception of the nonintellectual variables, all other data, comparable to that included in the original sample, were available. Using the original sample data as a basis for prediction, it now became possible to assign the members of the cross-validation sample to one of the three groups. The actual end-of-year group membership status for each student could be compared with this predicted group assignment, and the number of hits and misses attained by each of the remaining three batteries easily computed and compared. This alternate possibility of using the preceding class as a cross-validation sample was adopted as a basis for cross-validating the present study.

Data

The simultaneous analysis of the 33 variables used in the study is expensive, and, as a consequence, the variables were divided into four smaller batteries of predictors. The first battery was comprised of the eight *Differential Aptitude Tests;* the second, the 10 *Kuder Preference Record* scores; the third, six nonintellectual variables (the *Survey of Study Habits and Attitude* scores, the two Jervis *Self-Description Inventory* scores, pre-vocational goal status, frequency of teacher and counselor contact scores); the fourth, a pre-admission and achievement battery of nine variables (high school achievement and activity participation indices, Cooperative English Tests (C_2T)—Vocabulary, Speed, and Level, *Otis Gamma*—Form AM, *Scholastic Aptitude Test*—Verbal and Math, and first semester grade point index). The scores of an exclusively male population were used in the first three analyses while the fourth analysis included the scores of both sexes.

Method

The discriminant function technique exhausts all linear information about group separation provided by the n-variable data and in turn transforms this information into the discriminant-function space. This transformation generally results in a reduction of the space occupied by the original variables, since the size of the discriminant-function space does not exceed G-1 linear functions of these variables when the number of groups, G, is less than the number of tests as was the case here. It can be seen then that the number of discriminant functions obtained in this study can be 3 minus 1 or 2 which is considerably less than the original n-variable space associated with each of the batteries included in the study. Two potential discriminant functions then exhaust all the linear information provided by the variables in each battery relevant to group-separation.

In effect, it is possible to determine the

relative importance of each variable in a battery and, hence, identify those variables that are contributing importantly to the inter-group variation and those variables that are not. It is here that discriminant analysis resembles factor analysis since it now becomes possible to account for the discrimination among groups by means of a smaller number of variables than the initially larger number. The services of the IBM 650 electronic computer were employed in the analysis of the data. "Canned" programs are available and greatly reduce the necessary computational labor.

Results

Each of the four eigen values associated with the second discriminant function in each battery failed to attain statistical significance following the application of Rao's chi square test [*7, pp. 372–373*]. Only one of two possible functions is needed to account for the discrimination among groups in every case. In order to compare the importance of each variable in a battery, it is necessary to standardize the variables by multiplying each weight specified by the eigen vector by the corresponding total standard deviation of the original variable.

TABLE 1 reports the relative contribution

TABLE 1

Contributions of Each Variable to the Total Discriminating Power of the Battery

Battery No.	*Variable*	*Relative Weight*
1. Differential Aptitude Test	1. Verbal Reasoning	7.4825
	2. Clerical Speed and Accuracy	1.5975
	3. Abstract Reasoning	0.6289
	4. Space Relations	0.4563
	5. Numerical Ability	0.0323
	6. Mechanical Reasoning	−0.0476
	7. Sentences	−2.3813
	8. Spelling	−4.8423
2. Kuder Preference Record	1. Mechanical	12.8043
	2. Social Service	7.1371
	3. Clerical	6.4870
	4. Musical	4.2618
	5. Computational	3.1864
	6. Artistic	2.7237
	7. Persuasive	2.5990
	8. Outdoor	0.5800
	9. Literary	−1.6067
	10. Scientific	−4.1209
3. (Non-intellectual)	1. Frequency of Faculty Team Contact	0.6382
	2. Pre-Voc. Goal Status	0.3956
	3. *SDI*—Self-Other Discrepancy Score	0.1158
	4. *SDI*—Self-Ideal Discrepancy Score	0.1033
	5. Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes	0.0620
	6. Frequency of Counseling Contact	−0.1206
4. (Total sample)	1. Otis (IQ)	0.3845
	2. Participation in High School Activities	0.3840
	3. *Coop C-2*-Vocabulary	0.3712
	4. *CEEB*—Verbal Aptitude	0.3648
	5. High School Credit Ratio	0.3160
	6. *Coop C-2*-Speed	0.1371
	7. *CEEB*—Math Aptitude	0.0320
	8. *Coop C-2*-Level	0.0051
	9. Grade Point Index	−5.0322

TABLE 2
Actual vs. Predicted Group: Cross-Validation Sample
DAT Variables

Predicted Group Identity	*Actual Group Membership* 1	2	3	*Hits*	*Misses*	*Total*	*% Hits*
1. Failures	60	60	32	60	92	152	40
2. Terminals	17	33	27	33	44	77	43
3. Transfers	27	47	54	54	74	128	42

of each variable in a battery. The variables have been arranged along a continuum. Those variables on either end of the continuum which appear to vary considerably from zero primarily identify the factor separating the groups.

For the *DAT* battery, the "Verbal Reasoning" and the two "Language Usage" tests, "Spelling and Sentences," are the variables accounting for the discrimination. In effect, an aptitude factor of verbal reasoning versus verbal mechanics is responsible for the separation of the three groups.

A comparison of the positive with the negative *KPR* values suggests the presence of an intellectual interest dimension, *i.e.*, a technical-service (mechanical, social service, clerical) versus academic (scientific, literary) interest factor. Perhaps, "applied versus creative" would serve as an alternate and more precise description of the nature of this discriminant.

None of the discriminant weights in battery three (Non-intellectual) are very large. This is not surprising in light of the findings of Rao's test of significance which suggests that even the first discriminant function of this nonintellectual battery has only marginal significance as a discriminator. The largest positive values, frequency of faculty team contact and pre-vocational goal status, and the only negative value, frequency of counseling contact, do indicate the possible existence of a motivational dimension, however.

A comparison of the relative weights of battery four suggests that the grade point index almost stands alone as a discriminator. The sizes of the discriminant values of all other variables in the battery are relatively inconsequential. Using the two extreme scores as a basis for interpretation, one might infer the existence of an intelligence versus achievement dimension. Perhaps a safer interpretation would utilize the grade-point index variable and thus ignore all the others, implying the existence of an achievement factor only, *i.e.*, achievement versus non-achievement.

How effective were the predictions afforded by the data? TABLES 2, 3, 4, and 5 summarize the differential predictive accuracy of each of the four batteries of predictors.

The variation in the number of students in each group from table to table reflects, of course, the fact that the cross-validation population is not identical for each of the batteries of predictors. While considerable over-lap exists in each of the four applications, it was found in compiling the data that many students had incomplete test records and hence might be included in the sample for one battery of predictors but excluded from another. In addition, since many of the variables in the nonintellectual battery for the preceding year's class were missing, *the original sample itself was used as a means of cross-validating those predictions.*

TABLE 2 indicates that using the *DAT* battery as a basis for prediction, of 152 students assigned to group 1 membership status, 60 actually belonged to this group, while of the 92 who did not, 60 fell in group 2 and 32 students in group 3 or a total of 60 hits and 92 misses. This means then that for group 1 predictions, something like 40 per cent of these predictions were hits. The percentages of hits tallied for groups 2 and

3 are on the order of the group 1 predictions with percentages of 43 and 42 respectively.

The predictive effectiveness of the *KPR* battery is not unlike that of the *DAT*. The percentages of hits reported in TABLE 3 are 40, 46, and 37 for groups 1, 2, and 3 respectively. When using the non-intellectual battery as a basis for prediction (c.f. TABLE 4), a comparatively high percentage of hits, 57 and 54, for groups 2 and 3 are obtained, and a less impressive though better than chance prediction,[1] 24 per cent for group 1, is recorded. TABLE 5 which summarizes the predictive accuracy attained by the "total sample" battery indicates that this battery is by far the most successful predictor with hit percentages of 65, 64, and 74 for groups 1, 2, and 3 respectively.

In essence then, the predictive effectiveness achieved by the "total sample" battery is clearly superior to that achieved by the remaining three. The *DAT* and *KPR* batteries must be considered second best. While the non-intellectual battery appears to be a poor predictor of group 1 membership, it does hold promise as a predictor of membership in the remaining two groups. Interestingly enough, the total sample and non-intellectual batteries both hold greater promise of success as predictors for the high-achieving group than they do for the poor-achieving group.

[1] Allowing for the varying possibility of group 1 hits, *i.e.*, basing expectations on marginal frequencies, the expected number of hits is (134x51) 295 or about 23. 32 hits exceeds the expected 23.

TABLE 3
Actual vs. Predicted Group: Cross-Validation Sample
KPR Variables

Predicted Group Identity	*Actual Group Membership* 1	2	3	*Hits*	*Misses*	*Total*	*% Hits*
1. Failures	55	50	34	55	84	139	40
2. Terminals	24	54	39	54	63	117	46
3. Transfers	34	43	46	46	77	123	37

TABLE 4
Actual vs. Predicted Group: Data Sample
Non-Intellectual Variables

Predicted Group Identity	*Actual Group Membership* 1	2	3	*Hits*	*Misses*	*Total*	*% Hits*
1. Failures	32	48	54	32	102	134	24
2. Terminals	9	39	21	39	30	69	57
3. Transfers	10	32	50	50	42	92	54

TABLE 5
Actual vs. Predicted Group: Cross-Validation Sample
Total Sample Variables

Predicted Group Identity	*Actual Group Membership* 1	2	3	*Hits*	*Misses*	*Total*	*% Hits*
1. Failures	48	26	0	48	26	74	65
2. Terminals	14	62	21	62	35	97	64
3. Transfers	6	15	60	60	21	81	74

Implications

The existence of a verbal reasoning versus verbal mechanics aptitude factor would imply that so long as a prospective candidate possesses the requisite verbal aptitude for academic learning, the absence of language skills (spelling and grammar) is not detrimental to success in the program. This is probably due to the fact that either the latter is more amenable to rehabilitation than the former or is over-looked in deference to the former.

The identification of a technical-service versus academic interest factor with failure-transfer respectively represents the kind of interest factor that one would deem essential for success in the program, especially since science and the humanities constitute two major areas of study in the curriculum.

The nature of the motivational factor is an interesting one, since the implication is that so long as a student has a vocational goal and seeks help from his faculty team[2] his chances for success, *i.e.*, attaining transfer status, are thereby increased. The negative value of the frequency of counseling contacts is difficult to assess, since it may lack significance. Assuming that the frequency of counseling contacts does contribute significantly to the discrimination, one may be led to conclude that the better students seek assistance from their instructors, while the poorer students seek help from their counselors.

To some extent this is true, since students in academic difficulty are encouraged to consult with their counselors, periodically. In addition, it would seem reasonable to infer that the student who is having problems of an emotional, personal, vocational nature is most likely to seek assistance from his counselor and is also likely to manifest such problems in other behavioral areas as well, including performance in school.

In the "total sample" battery, the grade-point index was found to be overwhelmingly significant which is not surprising in light of the manner in which students are assigned to groups. The faculty team classifies students as "dismissals," "terminals," or "transfers" largely on the basis of semester grades. While the other variables in this battery are on occasion used in the making of such decisions, grades are by far the most significant variable used by the faculty team in the assignment of students to groups.

A comparison of the number of hits and misses for each battery points to the differential discriminative power associated with each of the batteries. The non-intellectual battery was found to be the least effective discriminator with the *DAT* and *KPR* batteries ranking next and approximating each other in predictive effectiveness. The total number of hits attained by the "total sample" battery was by far the most impressive. This is not surprising since the criterion, group membership, is well saturated with the predictor variable, grade-point index. It is readily seen then, that whether or not a student is dismissed, permitted to stay, or qualifies for transfer is dependent in large measure upon the nature of his scholastic achievement.

It would appear that the student who has verbal reasoning aptitude and creative interests (literary and scientific), frequently sought help from his teachers, and gave promise of achievement during the first semester was most likely to attain transfer status by the end of his freshman year. Contrariwise, the student who had poor verbal reasoning aptitude despite the possession of verbal mechanical skills, had applied or practical interests (mechanical, social-service, clerical), frequently sought assistance from his counselors and rarely from his instructors, and achieved poorly during the first semester was most likely to withdraw or be dismissed for academic reasons.

The relative ineffectiveness of the predictions may have been due to the fact that the three groups did not constitute a true trichotomy but were in fact defined largely in terms of a common achievement continuum

[2]The faculty team is comprised of a team of five instructors who teach in diverse subject matter areas but have the same group of students in common. The reason for separating the counselor's rating score from the others was the suspicion that the student who consistently seeks assistance from the teaching members of his team is somehow different from the student who is motivated to seek help from his counselor.

and, as such, lacked distinct lines of demarcation from one group to the next. The use of discrete or highly independent groups may have permitted greater temerity in the conclusions allowed by the findings of this study.

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COMMENTS

PROFESSOR CALIA elected to emphasize the study of collinearity possible with discriminant analysis. He also noted that placement (or decision) can be investigated by means of discriminant analysis. Let's look further at these points.

The discriminant function analyzes a nominal dependent variable in relation with several independent variables each of which, in theory, represents a variable scaled at least intervally. Group status may be attained either by personal choice (*e.g.*, wish for college or not) or by the will of others (*e.g.*, continued in college or not, counseled or not). Also, many statuses in groups result from *both* personal choice and consent from others, *i.e.*, a subject both *elects* to enter and *is permitted* to enter and to stay.

Your Editor recently crystallized my awareness of this distinction when, in our current Mark Harris type correspondence, he commented on my habit of moving from "numbers to motives." Several studies of career development completed at Harvard have analyzed somewhat the exercise of the wish of a person and the will of a superior (or superiors) as they occur together. Such studies aim at personal incentive exercised in conditions of control in the real world. Calia's study, on the other hand, deals only with the overt expression of the will of the superior. Personal incentive is covert because the wish of the student concerning group status is not incorporated formally either in the definitions of groups or in the variables related later to the group status. Hence, Calia studied conditions related to the definitions of failure, termination, and transfer as used by the faculty of his school. It is interesting to discover that such decisions may be anticipated a bit. Such findings, however, relate more to the *expected investment* of capability than to the *election of a course* of investment by the student. They therefore relate more to the question of "ought" than they do to the questions of "will" or "do." The discriminant function is applicable in either case but we should note that different theories likely result from rather subtle differences in the definitions of group status. This awareness has yet to

form in relation to the various applications of discriminant analysis available in the literature of personnel work. We must subordinate the method to theory in the future if we are to advance theory even a little bit.

A second aspect of discriminant analysis is noted by Calia's paper itself. When the number of variables and the number of groups both exceed two and when multiple discriminators are sought, multiple discriminant analysis offers a means of testing for the existence of collinearity. Collinearity exists when the centroids of more than two groups are reasonably well described by a line in the space spanned by the axes along which the independent variables are represented. We frequently presume such to be the case in relating aptitude to later success *within* one or another form of activity. In the study of motives (or allocations to groups) this question itself becomes of considerable interest, however. For instance, suppose Calia had discovered a second discriminant function in any of his four sets of data. This would have indicated that faculty definition of failure, termination, and transfer was not a linear function of the set of variables. It is ordinarily very useful to have categorizations less debatable than those resulting from the somewhat arbitrary division of a *single* dimension into three parts, the condition evidently prevalent with regard to failure, termination, and transfer *among the data studied.*

A third aspect of discriminant analysis is that the theory is derived in terms of variables scaled at least intervally. Some departures from this condition do not disturb the theory overly much. For instance, it is possible to include an appropriately coded, nominal variable as an independent variable. The statistical theory though offers no guide for *selection* of the independent variables. In my own enthusiasm to illustrate, I have sometimes failed to exercise discretion in my choice of variables. For instance, my students and I rediscovered SEX in several of our studies. Boys and girls, men and women *do* differ in their selection and entry upon study and work.

Unfortunately, my zeal to illustrate for its own sake seems shared by others. For instance, Kaczkowski and Rothney (this *Journal,* 1956, *35,* 231–235) have written of discriminant analysis in regard to the evaluation of counseling. Unless the selection of counseled and non-counseled students is not well controlled, mental ability and a variety of measures of other aptitudes ought not relate to the presence or absence of counseling as these authors must have expected since those variables were incorporated in their analyses. A change in mental ability or other aptitude just is not an expected result of counseling in my theory of counseling.

I also find some lack of appreciation of matters under investigation in Calia's study. If you analyze groups in relation to the variable primarily defining them (*i.e.,* grade-point index), you should not be surprised when that variable predominates the discrimination of those same groups (see battery four in Table 1). All this serves to illustrate what Professor Phillip J. Rulon likes to call the "fail-safe" property of discriminant analysis. If nothing is there, the analysis says so. It adds fuel too to another conviction I am forming, namely, if you ask a simple question by means of discriminant analysis, the technique gives you a simple answer. We put SEX into our analyses at Harvard, and lo it returned. Kaczkowski and Rothney fared the same way; Calia traveled the same road. Powerful technique, eh? Let us hope though that the technique may soon be used more wisely as we begin to understand it better.

Some may wonder why grade-point index is negatively weighted in Calia's report of the results of battery four (Table 1). Actually, the sign is arbitrary. The chosen sign of that variable in the vector probably placed the centroid of the transfers at the lowest extremity of the resulting discriminant line. Similarly the transfers were probably the ones with both high literary and/or scientific interests and high aptitudes for verbal reasoning rather than otherwise. We should remember, however, that coordinates of the centroids of the several groups in the discriminant space ought to be reported or pictured because they complete the description of the orientation of

the discriminant functions and of the groups they discriminate.

Although Professor Calia did not give eight of the nine variables in battery four a chance to discriminate, his study merits the attention claimed for it. Academic performance as desired in his college does seem related to the possession of scholastic aptitude and a preference for expression through literary and scientific pursuits. Furthermore, the terminal students generally fall along a part of a trichotomized *single* variable in each of the four spaces investigated. Fortunately, the non-intellectual variables chosen do not enter *markedly* into the decisions of the faculty. These findings inch us forward a bit in understanding academic performance and its recognition while also illuminating additionally a new strategy of research of which the counselor ought to be aware. Finally, they give me a chance to note that discriminant analysis offers a powerful test of theory while offering little hope of inventing theory. As with factor analysis, the return to theory from analysis is not likely to be better than the original incorporation of theory into experiment.—DAVID V. TIEDEMAN, *Professor of Education, Harvard University.*

C.E.E.B. COLLOQUIUM ON COLLEGE ADMISSIONS HELD

The College Entrance Examination Board held its eighth Colloquium on College Admissions at the Arden House in Harriman, New York, October 26–29. Directed by A. Blair Knapp, President of Denison University, this invitational colloquium included the following speakers: W. Max Wise, Teachers College, Columbia University; Francis Keppel, Dean of the Faculty of Education, Harvard University Graduate School of Education; Edgar B. Phillips, Executive Director of the American Child Guidance Foundation; and B. Alden Thresher, Director of Admissions, Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Guidance consultants were APGA members Arthur A. Hitchcock, Walter F. Johnson, Esther Lloyd-Jones, and David V. Tiedeman.

THE SELF-CONCEPT

of Bright Underachieving High School Students as Revealed by an Adjective Check List

MERVILLE C. SHAW, KENNETH EDSON, and HUGH M. BELL

The problem of academic underachievement among the brighter segment of school students has received much attention of late from psychologists, educators, and lay people. A variety of approaches has been taken in an effort to understand this problem, and one of the most promising of these seems to be a study of the personality differences which exist between bright students who are doing academic work commensurate with their ability and those who are receiving grades far below the level that might be expected of them. From the point of view of both prevention and remediation it is important for us to understand the underachiever in terms of the personal characteristics peculiar to him. Such studies of underachievement may eventually lead to an increased understanding of the interrelationship between intellectual and motivational factors.

Previous studies have not resulted in clear-cut answers to the question of whether or not the underachiever is "maladjusted." Frick [2] found a relationship between certain MMPI variables and low grades in a population of college females. On the other hand, Shaw and Brown [6] found no relationship between scores on the Bell Adjustment Inventory and underachievement in a combined male and female college population. There seems to be a greater unanimity of results when specific traits are studied, rather than broad categories of adjustment or maladjustment. Gough [3], Morgan [4], and Shaw and Grubb [7] may be cited as examples of the latter situation. Self-concept studies of academic underachievers are notable for their absence in the literature. The present study represents an attempt to obtain at least a limited picture of how the underachiever perceives himself as compared with the achiever's perception of himself.

Method

The subjects used in the study were juniors and seniors in high school, selected on the basis of their performance on the Primary Mental Abilities Test. No student was included in the final groups whose IQ was below 113 on this measure. A student was classified as an achiever if his cumulative grade point average since entering high school was 2.00 or above. A student was classified as an underachiever if his cumulative grade point average since entering high school was 1.75 or below. Data for males and females were treated separately. This resulted in the formation of four groups: male achievers, male underachievers, female achievers, and female underachievers. In order to establish the homogeneity of these groups with regard to the ability variable, t tests of the mean differences between achievers and underachievers on the PMA test were carried out. No significant differences were found. These results are summarized in Table 1.

The final groups consisted of 20 male and 21 female achievers, and 19 male and 27 female underachievers. In order to insure that two significantly different groups were being considered with respect to grade point average, t tests were carried out. Differences

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TABLE 1

Differences Between Primary Mental Abilities IQ of Achievers and Underachievers

	Achievers		Underachievers				
	Mean	*S.D.*	*Mean*	*S.D.*	*df*	*t*	*p*
Male	124.30	5.81	120.79	4.27	37	2.02	n.s.
Female	123.29	4.81	121.04	3.48	46	1.88	n.s.

TABLE 2

Differences Between Grade Point Averages of Achievers and Underachievers

	Achievers		Underachievers			
	Mean	*S.D.*	*Mean*	*S.D.*	*df*	*t*
Male	2.526	0.301	1.405	0.225	37	13.13*
Female	2.483	0.235	1.283	0.367	46	13.02*

* Yields *t* significant beyond 0.01 level.

significant beyond the 0.01 level were found. TABLE 2 summarizes these findings.

The results of these tests indicate that experimental and control groups are similar with regard to level of ability as measured by the PMA test and significantly different in their level of achievement as measured by grade point average.

The Sarbin Adjective Checklist was chosen as a measure of self-concept because of its high reliability, simplicity of administration and scoring, and wide coverage of personality characteristics to which the subject may respond [5]. It consists of 200 adjectives and the respondent is asked to place a check in front of those adjectives he feels are characteristic of him. Differences in self-concept were determined by means of a Chi square test which was carried out for every adjective between the male achiever and underachiever groups, and the female achiever and underachiever groups.

TABLE 3

Sarbin Adjective Check-list Words Showing Significant Differences Between Male Groups

Adjective	*Achievers* *N*	*Under-achievers* *N*	X^2
Stable	11	1	12.500†
Realistic	12	5	5.461*
Optimistic	12	5	5.461*
Enthusiastic	13	6	5.461*
Reliable	14	6	7.200†
Clear-thinking	16	8	9.600†
Intelligent	16	10	4.985†
Immodest	0	6	7.200†
Reckless	1	6	4.434*
Relaxed	4	11	5.600*
Mischievous	3	12	9.257†
Argumentative	5	11	4.050*
Restless	7	13	4.050*

* Yields X^2 significant beyond 0.05 level.
† Yields X^2 significant beyond 0.01 level.

Results

Adjectives on which the difference between male achievers and underachievers was significant at the 0.05 level or less are shown in TABLE 3. The corresponding data for the female groups is shown in TABLE 4.

Several interesting factors are revealed by these tables. The results for male groups indicate that achievers exceeded underachievers significantly on the following adjectives: stable, realistic, optimistic, enthusiastic, reliable, clear thinking, and intelligent. Male underachievers exceeded achievers on the adjactives: immodest, reckless, relaxed, mischievous, argumentative, and restless. A cursory glance at these differences tempts one to say that male achievers feel more positively about themselves than do male underachievers.

The corresponding results for females are not quite so clear cut. It can be seen that

female achievers exceeded female underachievers significantly in their response to only two adjectives. These adjectives were: ambitious and responsible. On the other hand, the underachievers checked a relatively long list of adjectives significantly more times than did the achievers. These adjectives were: rugged, fussy, confused, hardheaded, lovable, moody, jolly, unselfish, anxious, mischievous, kind, pleasure seeking, soft hearted, easy going, and considerate. In the case of the female groups no simple generalizations about the results are apparent; in fact, there seem to be some essential contradictions in some of the adjectives checked.

Discussion

Results of the study are not entirely clear cut. It would appear safe to conclude that male achievers feel relatively more positive about themselves than do the male underachievers. A tentative conclusion which can be drawn from a consideration of the results obtained on the female groups is that female underachievers feel somewhat ambivalent about themselves. It may be that they tend to see themselves both positively and negatively, or that they may be confused regarding their feminine role. Both possibilities are suggested by the data.

It is also interesting to note that of a total of 30 adjectives which indicated differences between experimental and control groups, only one was found on both the male and female lists. This adjective was mischievous. In both cases the underachievers checked themselves as fitting this adjective a significantly greater number of times than did achievers. The fact that male underachievers have rather strong negative self-concepts as opposed to their female counterparts may help to explain why academic underachievement is predominantly a male rather than a female problem.[1]

The major findings of this study are:

1. Differences in self-concept do exist between achievers and underachievers.

2. Male underachievers seem to have more negative feelings about themselves than do male achievers.

3. Female underachievers tend to be ambivalent with regard to their feelings toward themselves.

4. The present data do not indicate whether differences in self-concept are the causes of, or the result of, underachievement.

Results of the present study are supported, at least in part, by the findings of Barrett [1] who reports that underachievers tend to lack a "feeling of worth as an individual." Paradoxically he also states, "Both groups suffer from feelings of inadequacy." Barrett does not define his use of the terms "personal worth" or "inadequacy," and herein may lay the difficulty. The present findings also indicate that further intensive study of the differences in self-concept between achievers and underachievers may lead to increased understanding of the problem of academic motivation.

TABLE 4

Sarbin Adjective Check-list Words Showing Significant Differences Between Female Groups

Adjective	*Achievers* *N*	*Under-achievers* *N*	X^2
Ambitious	16	8	9.591†
Responsible	17	11	7.204†
Rugged	0	8	7.787†
Fussy	1	8	5.075*
Confused	3	12	5.430*
Hard-headed	3	13	6.599*
Lovable	4	14	5.953*
Moody	4	14	5.953*
Jolly	6	16	5.071*
Unselfish	5	18	9.591†
Anxious	7	17	4.776*
Mischievous	8	18	4.556*
Kind	9	20	5.705*
Pleasure-seeking	8	22	10.889†
Soft-hearted	11	22	5.772*
Easy-going	9	24	13.583†
Considerate	11	23	7.558*

* Yields X^2 significant beyond 0.05 level.
† Yields X^2 significant beyond 0.01 level.

[1] The larger female underachiever group in the present study is accounted for partly by the fact that the population from which subjects were drawn contained more females than males, and partly because of the chance occurrence of a higher than usual incidence of female underachievers in the original population.

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TWO NEW PUBLICATIONS FROM N.E.A.

Year-Round School and *Contemporary Issues in Elementary Education* are two of the National Education Association's recent publications. *Year-Round School,* published by the American Association of School Administrators, takes a close look at the four different patterns of year-round school planning. The book analyzes each plan and discusses the advantages and disadvantages of each. *Contemporary Issues in Elementary Education,* a 27-page booklet available from the Educational Policies Commission, deals with many of the current issues facing the elementary school. There are sections on staff services, departmentalization, pupil placement and progress, and giftedness. Both publications may be ordered from the NEA, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. *Year-Round School* is $1.00; *Contemporary Issues in Elementary Education* is $.35.

A Mental Maturity Test as One Criterion for Admission to an American School Abroad

PHYLLIS A. WARREN

The American School in Japan, Tokyo, represents one of many such schools located throughout the world. Like so many of its counterparts, the school has undergone many changes since its inception in the year 1902. For purposes of this report, however, only the past six years of its colorful history are of concern. The present school organization stems from the year 1952–1953, when the American School in Japan returned to its pre-World War II status as an independent, non-denominational, community-sponsored educational institution serving the needs of the foreign residents of Tokyo. The school includes a kindergarten, an elementary school (grades 1–6), and a secondary division (grades 7–12). Acording to its charter from the Japanese government, primary consideration must be given to the admission of those children of United States citizenship who are unable to receive an education elsewhere. Children of other nationalities are admitted on the basis of previous educational experience and sufficient knowledge of the English language to complete successfully an academic (college-preparatory) program.

The Problem

During the past six years, enrollment has increased annually from about 350 pupils in the year 1952–1953 to about 700 for the year 1958–1959. Although United States citizens comprise the largest single group of students, they are often not a majority. There are some 36 different nationalities represented among the student body each year. Because annual turnover is over one-third, the nationalities represented may vary considerably from one year to another. Despite this variability, students from Asian countries account for about 40 per cent of the total enrollment, with Chinese and Koreans comprising the largest numbers. Because these groups are relatively stable within the Japanese foreign community, variations in nationalities represented in the student-body appear to stem more from European countries than from Asian.

Although the student body of the school is ethnically heterogeneous, it would appear that all the students are drawn from similar socioeconomic backgrounds as represented in their home cultures. Approximately 58 per cent of all families represented are engaged in business occupations. This proportion is approximately the same for both children from Asian countries and from the United States and other English-speaking countries. The 17 foreign embassies who have children in the school contribute about 12.5 per cent of the pupils. Children of parents engaged in various types of educational and missionary work represent about 21 per cent of the student body. The remaining 8.5 per cent are distributed among various other professions. Because there are military dependents' schools in Tokyo, very few children in the American School have parents engaged in military careers.

This cultural heterogeneity and high turnover of students would seem to be typical of American schools overseas. Although the multi-ethnic backgrounds, with accompanying language problems, constitute the largest single problem, others loom large as well. The very nature of these schools, the whole reason for their existence presage

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difficulties in determining criteria for admission and educational placement. Many children present themselves for enrollment with no previous school records of any kind. Some have attended a different school in a different country every year of their educational history. Others have had a pattern of interrupted schooling. Interpretation of school records is often very difficult, if not impossible by objective standards. Hence, such schools as the American School in Japan have felt it necessary to rely in great measure upon standardized tests to determine who shall be admitted and to what grade assigned.

Since the fall of 1952 the American School in Japan employed all or parts of the *California Achievement Tests* as one criterion for admissions, particularly for the educational placement of its elementary school pupils. Although administered to all applicants for admission, the tests served primarily to ascertain the level of English comprehension and usage of applicants for whom English was not their native language. Ordinarily, American children had been admitted and placed according to previous school records and scores earned on the California Achievement tests. However, no attempt had been made to judge the ability of any student to complete successfully a college-preparatory course of study. The result was that all too many secondary students failed to maintain a satisfactory school record. Since practically all high school students had planned to attend colleges in the United States, their grade-point averages in school were in many cases too low for admission to higher educational institutions. Approximating present level of achievement did not appear to predict future rate of learning. For students, whose native language is not English, measuring their level of English comprehension and usage with the California tests was not sufficient to predict their success at the American School. Many floundered, barely earning passing grades. It would seem, therefore, that some means for measuring the scholastic ability of *all* applicants for admission would be mandatory.

Cognizant of the difficulties in attempting to measure scholastic ability of other than American children with a test designed for use with only Americans, the present study was undertaken. Can the *California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity* predict high school grades (7–12) for all pupils regardless of their ethnic or language background? Will the *California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity* differentiate among students of diverse cultural background?

The Study

Subjects. All pupils (grades 1–12) in attendance at the American School in Japan were given the appropriate form of the *California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity* during the month of October, 1958 ($N = 597$). Of these, 332 were native English-speaking (but not all U. S. citizens); 207 were pupils whose native language was a Far Eastern language; and 58 whose native language was a European one. Elementary (grades 1–6) pupils accounted for 316 cases; secondary (grades 7–12), 281.

Instrument. The *California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity*, 1957 Revision (henceforth to be referred to as the CTMM) consists of seven sub-tests yielding percentile scores in four factors: (1) spatial relationships; (2) logical reasoning; (3) numerical reasoning; and (4) verbal concepts. In addition, these seven subtests combine into three sets of IQ scores: Language, Non-Language, and Total.

Procedure. The scores on all four factors and the three IQ's were tabulated according to grade level, after which pupils in each grade were divided into three groups: those for whom English was their native language; those whose native language was a Far Eastern language; and those whose native language was a European language. Placement into one of these categories was determined by teacher interviews with each student plus referral to the cumulative record of each pupil. Since many children tended to claim English as their native language, extensive questioning about languages spoken at home was necessary to obtain accurate information.

For all students, grades 7–12, final year grades (June, 1959) in English, Mathe-

TABLE 1

Comparison of Correlation Coefficients of CTMM Scores and Year Grades between Students (grades 7–12)Whose Native Language is English and Those Whose Native Language is a Far Eastern One

Grades Earned June, 1958	*Verbal Concepts* *Eng. Gr.*	*Verbal Concepts* *F.E. Gr.*	*Numerical Reasoning* *Eng. Gr.*	*Numerical Reasoning* *F.E. Gr.*	*Language IQ* *Eng. Gr.*	*Language IQ* *F.E. Gr.*	*Non-language IQ* *Eng. Gr.*	*Non-language IQ* *F.E. Gr.*	*Total IQ* *Eng. Gr.*	*Total IQ* *F.E. Gr.*
English	0.49	0.50	...	...	0.50	0.62	0.38	0.25	0.61	0.57
Mathematics	...	...	0.64	0.61	...	...	0.40	0.39	0.58	0.50
Academic Average	...	...	...	...	0.53	0.27	0.12	0.25	0.45	0.51

matics, and grade-point average for all academic subjects were tabulated. Product-moment correlation technique was employed to discover relationships between factors and IQ scores with actual grades earned for pupils in each of the three language groups. Due to dropouts during the year, grades were available for only 135 native-English-speaking students; 83 students for whom their native language was a Far Eastern one; and 19 students in the European language group. Because the European group was so small, analyses of data were confined to comparisons between the two major language groups in order to obtain data pertinent to the power of the CTMM to predict high school grades of pupils of diverse language backgrounds.

Moreover, analyses of scores earned by both language groups on the four factors as well as composite IQ's were made to determine if significant differences existed in scores between these groups. If such differences existed, how useful would the CTMM be as a criterion for admissions to such a school as the American School in Japan.

Findings and Discussion

The CTMM was found to predict, significantly, grades earned in English, mathematics, and grade average in academic (college-preparatory) subjects for the entire sample of secondary (7–12) pupils regardless of their language background. However, the same tests did not always predict equally well for the two groups. Perusal of TABLE I would indicate that for the group whose native language was English, the best predictor of English grades was the Total IQ. Language IQ would appear to correlate highest with grades in English for the group whose native languages were one of the Far Eastern ones. With respect to grades in mathematics the Numerical Reasoning scores were the best predictor for both groups. Interestingly, when all academic grades, including such subjects as social studies, science, and foreign languages as well as English and mathematics, were averaged, the Language IQ seemed to be the strongest predictor for the English-language group while the Total IQ appeared to be the best predictor for the Asian-language group. These differences in obtained correlation coefficients between the two groups would seem to be rationally unexplainable, but these variations would tend to indicate that the two groups were independent, not belonging to the same population.

Further evidence of independence between the two groups was revealed in TABLE 2. From these data the obvious cultural bias of the CTMM was indicated by the findings that all sub-test scores and all three IQ scores were significantly higher for the English-language group than for the Asian group with one notable exception. The *Spatial Relationships* factor was not found to be significantly different for either group, although the direction of difference was in favor of higher scores for the English-language group. Speculation by several American and Japanese teachers of the Japanese

TABLE 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Significance of Difference of Mean Scores of the CTMM between the Two Groups: Native English-Speaking and Those Whose Native Language is a Far Eastern One for Entire Sample (grades 1–12)

Test Variable	*Group*	*N*	*Mean*	*S.D.*	*t-Ratio*	*Significance Level*
Verbal concepts	Eng.	332	76.27	25.30		
	F.E.	206	46.95	31.06	11.37	0.0005
Numerical Reasoning	Eng.	332	73.00	25.16		
	F.E.	206	63.83	27.31	3.89	0.0005
Logical Reasoning	Eng.	332	77.98	21.31		
	F.E.	206	64.31	24.70	6.55	0.0005
Spatial Relationships	Eng.	332	68.61	25.77		
	F.E.	206	66.57	28.39	0.84	
Language IQ	Eng.	332	117.5	16.40		
	F.E.	206	100.0	16.00	12.15	0.0005
Non-language IQ	Eng.	332	112.0	17.03		
	F.E.	206	109.0	18.31	1.89	0.05
Total IQ	Eng.	332	115.0	15.00		
	F.E.	206	103.0	15.00	9.02	0.0001

language to American students had suggested that, perhaps, a significant difference would be found between these two groups. Informal studies (not published) would intimate that the learning of calligraphy and the spatial relations factor were positively associated. Inasmuch as the subjects in the Asian group had all received their primary educations in Chinese, Korean, or Japanese schools and had been exposed to many manipulative activities as very small children, it had seemed possible that they might earn higher scores on the *Spatial Relationships* test than would the group whose native language was English and who had not had as much emphasis upon drawing, etc., as had the Asian group. The scores obtained, then, would seem to indicate that of the four factors tested, only spatial relations could be said to be "culture-free." Furthermore, from the data obtained in this study, one could not conclude with the test authors that the Non-language IQ was free from environmental factors, although the difference between groups was only significant at the 0.05 level. Further investigation with large groups might indicate that there is, in fact, no significant difference. However, a significant difference was found in this study which might indicate that one or all of the factors contributing to the Non-language IQ are culturally biased. Although none of these factors is measured verbally, all employ various types of reasoning which may be peculiar to the education and background of people whose cultural heritage is based upon the English language. The whole problem of reasoning processes appears to be involved.

From Table 3 it can be noted that, generally speaking, Asian students had lower ability scores compared to grades earned than did the English-language group, thus confirming the mean scores reported in Table 2. Moreover, the percentage of Asian students earning A's and B's is considerably lower than for the English-language students. These data suggest that perhaps some of the same factors affecting CTMM scores are present in the level of grades earned. Of these, it is suggested that probably the greatest factor operating is that of lack of English-language comprehension and usage. The fact that fewer

Asian students experience out-and-out failure is more likely due to their whole attitude toward education, with the high status accorded it by the Oriental, than to higher ability than English-speaking students. On the whole, one certainly cannot conclude that the test scores reported indicate inferior scholastic ability among Asian students in attendance at the American School in Japan. Rather, it would appear from analysis of grades actually earned that the CTMM does not yield valid ability scores for Asian students. Neverthless, Asian students do suffer in competition with native English-speaking pupils with respect to academic grades obtained.

Above all, the purpose of this study was to investigate factors in achievement in order to develop criteria for admissions. From the data presented here and from *California Achievement Test* scores, level of English-language comprehension appears to be the main factor in determining successful completion of the college-preparatory program. However, knowledge of an individual's reading skills does not yield information predicting his continued growth. For this reason, the attempt has been made to validate the CTMM for such a heterogeneous population as exists at the American School in Japan. From the data presented it would definitely appear that the CTMM does tend to predict high school grades. As long as no one attempts to equate the CTMM scores of Asian students with *bona fide* intelligence quotients, then these scores can prove useful in providing one criterion for admission to the American School in Japan.

Although further research with this instrument is mandatory, the admission of new students cannot be delayed. Experimental use of the study's findings is necessary. Therefore, on the basis of the data obtained, the following cut-off scores for admissions will be tentatively recom-

TABLE 3

Comparisons of Grades Earned and Median CTMM Scores for All Students (7–12) according to Native Language Group

English Grade	*—Group: Native English Speaking— % Earned*	*Median Total IQ*	*—Group: Native Asian Language— % Earned*	*Median Lang IQ*
A	22.1	129.5	10.8	125.0
B	35.1	115.0	33.7	115.0
C	32.4	105.0	32.6	95.0
D	4.8	95.0	18.1	93.0
F	5.6	95.0	4.8	75.0
Mathematics Grade	*% Earned*	*Median Num. Reas.*	*% Earned*	*Median Num. Reas.*
A	33.1	95th Percentile	28.1	90th Percentile
B	26.9	80th	24.0	80th
C	23.8	60th	35.2	60th
D	10.0	20th	11.3	35th
F	15.2	20th	1.4	1st
Total Academic Average	*% Earned*	*Median Lang IQ*	*% Earned*	*Median Total IQ*
A	15.6	145.0	10.3	115.0
B	37.6	125.0	31.0	115.0
C	36.2	115.0	42.5	105.0
D	5.7	99.5	15.0	95.0
F	4.9	95.0	1.2	65.0

mended: (1) For students whose native language is English, the minimum Language IQ score acceptable will be 100. This score is approximately equal to —1 standard deviation from the mean and from analyses of grades earned would appear to be the minimum of scholastic ability required to complete a college-preparatory program. (2) For students whose native language is a Far Eastern language, the minimum Total IQ score acceptable will be 88, which is about —1 standard deviation from the mean of this group. In addition, each student in this group will be required to meet the minimum level of reading comprehension needed for the grade to which applying.

Summary

This study endeavored to explore some of the differences in responses of two language groups on the *California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity*, 1957 Edition. Despite the cultural heterogeneity of students attending the American School in Japan could the CTMM predict level of academic success for all pupils in grades 7–12? Furthermore, would research reveal significant differences in CTMM scores between two major groups: those for whom English was their native language and those for whom their native language was a Far Eastern one? The purpose for making this investigation was to secure data pertinent to the usefulness of CTMM scores as one criterion for admission to an American school abroad.

Result of various analyses indicate that the CTMM will predict academic grades for two such language groups. However, all the sub-test scores and the three composite IQ's did not predict equally well for each group. It was found that Language IQ gave the best prognosis for academic grades in general for the English-language group, while Total IQ served best as a predictor for the Asian-language group. Numerical Reasoning scores significantly predicted grades in mathematics for both groups. English grades were associated most highly with Total IQ for the English-language group, and with Language IQ for the Asian-language group.

Significant differences between the two groups were found on all sub-tests and the three IQ scores except one, Spatial Relationships. Mean scores were significantly higher for the English-language group, indicating the cultural bias of the CTMM, including non-language factors. The ability to perceive relationships in space was found to be independent of language background.

The data further indicated that Asian students, for the most part, have great difficulty competing with native English-speaking students in an American school abroad. Their lack of English comprehension would seem to be the chief factor involved, although Occidental logic may be sufficiently different from that of the Oriental to make school learning more difficult for the Asian in an American school.

The investigation yielded findings indicating that CTMM may not be considered a valid instrument for the measuring of the scholastic ability of students whose native language is not English. However, the test does appear to be useful as a predictor of school grades regardless of the pupil's language background. For this reason, it does seem to have merit as one criterion for admission to an American school abroad.

TEACHING MATERIALS FOR HANDICAPPED HOMEMAKERS

Vocational Rehabilitation of Handicapped Homemakers is a pamphlet listing available motion pictures, publications, and exhibits on work simplification in the area of child care for the physically handicapped homemakers developed by the School of Home Economics at the University of Connecticut, Storrs. Including descriptions of the various items and prices, the listing of teaching materials is available from the Home Economics Research Center, Storrs, Connecticut.

The Status and Roles of Head Residents

DONALD W. KILBOURN

BURGEONING enrollments have made it necessary for colleges and universities to house increasing numbers of students in college-owned and operated facilities. This sudden concentration of students has been a potent factor in the changing character of the campus scene. There is considerable evidence to suggest that while administrators have been well aware of the physical "bodies," they have lacked insight in dealing with many of the personnel problems associated with large-scale communal living.

Data related to housing indicate that residence halls can and should make a significant contribution beyond food and shelter to the education of students.

A key person in the implementation of an effective housing program is the head resident. The American Council on Education study group on housing [2] concluded that the potentialities of group living will never be realized in the residence hall setting until housing officials are included in the circle of academic respectability and given pay and prestige in keeping with the difficulties and educational importance of their work. E. G. Williamson [4] has said that the leadership of the halls is the basic key to their use as an educational facility. Such organizations as the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators [3] and the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors [1] have indicated the need for an upgrading of professional status for head residents.

In an effort to determine existing conditions relative to status and roles of head residents and to ascertain what housing administrators believed to be the ideal situation, the author surveyed all member institutions of The Association of College and University Housing Officers who operated at least one residence hall for women students. Returns were received from 124 administrators (an 82 per cent response). Of this number, 28 schools had an enrollment in excess of 10,000; 35 enrolled between 5,000 and 10,000; 34 institutions had a student body of 2,000 to 5,000; and 27 were colleges with fewer than 2,000 students. Information on 788 head residents was received from the 124 respondents.

Data on six factors relating to status were collected and analyzed. These factors were: title, age, marital status, professional training, faculty rank, and salary. Several items pertaining to the administrative, counseling, and disciplinary roles were also included.

The person responsible for the work of the head residents in women's halls was asked to respond to the items in the questionnaire in two ways: first, what is the existing situation on your campus, and, second, what is your preference in the matter. Forty-one per cent of the respondents were deans of women, 28 per cent were directors of housing, 15 per cent were titled directors of residence halls, 12 per cent were deans of students, and 4 per cent of the colleges had their head residents report directly to a business officer.

Status of Head Residents

Title. The findings revealed a wide range of titles used to identify persons who

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Portions of this article are from the author's doctoral dissertation, "A Study of the Status and Roles of Head Residents in College and University Residence Halls for Women," Michigan State University, 1959, done under the chairmanship of Dr. Walter F. Johnson, Jr., Professor of Education, Michigan State University.

live in women's residence halls and who direct the various activities associated with the housing of students. No title was used by more than one-third of the respondents. The term, counselor, while not used at all among the small institutions, was indicated by one-third of the largest universities. The title, housemother, considered archaic by several administrators, was reported by 37 per cent of the small colleges. One-third of the administrators preferred a title different from the one used on their own campus. Preferences were listed as follows: head resident, 40 per cent; resident director, 25 per cent; resident adviser, 13 per cent; counselor, 11 per cent; and housemother, 5 per cent.

Age. Less than one-fourth of the head residents were under 40 years of age. Sixty-five per cent were past 50. Since 72 per cent of the respondents indicated a preference for head residents less than 50 years of age, causes other than employment policy must account for the preponderance of elderly women in residence hall work.

Marital status. Widows comprised 61 per cent of the 788 head residents reported in this study. Administrators expressed the following preferences in regard to marital status: not an important factor, 40 per cent; widowed, 25 per cent; single, 24 per cent; and married, 11 per cent.

Education. One-fifth of the institutions surveyed demanded the master's degree as the minimum for new head residents. One-third required a baccalaureate degree. Thus, 53 per cent demanded at least a four-year degree. Thirty-five per cent would employ head residents without any college training. The large schools set the highest academic standard. Sixty-four per cent of the universities with an enrollment in excess of 10,000 insisted upon four years of college training, whereas only 40 per cent of the colleges with fewer than 2,000 students had such a requirement.

Most housing administrators (83 per cent) believed that head residents should possess at least a four-year degree. Fourteen per cent thought two years of college was sufficient, 55 per cent said four years, and 28 per cent preferred the master's degree. No one thought educational preparation beyond the master's was necessary.

Seventeen per cent of the 788 head residents included in this study had specialized college training in guidance. Administrators agreed (84 per cent) that guidance was the best academic preparation for such persons. This is an important agreement and has significant implications for counselor-trainers, housing administrators, and professional organizations concerned with the housing of students.

Faculty status. There was considerable disparity between the existing situation and preferred practice on the issue of faculty status for head residents. Seventy-three per cent of the institutions did not grant faculty status to head residents, but 65 per cent of the housing administrators believed that academic rank should be given such positions. Size of institution made no difference on this item. About the same percentages in all categories responded alike. Several administrators recognized a difficult dilemma. Before faculty status could be given, head residents must have advanced degrees; but before such persons can be attracted to the collegiate housing field, greater pay and status must be offered. In the 33 colleges and universities where head residents had faculty status not one administrator thought the policy should be changed. Almost without exception, they listed the following reasons for including head residents in a system of academic rank: (1) easier to employ qualified staff; (2) shows head residents that their work is considered important and that they are educators first and not peripheral to the basic

TABLE 1

Median Cash Salary of Head Residents—(10 Months Basis)

Enrollment	*Number of Institutions*	*Median Cash Salary*
Less than 2,000	21	$1,650
2,000 to 5,000	30	2,325
5,000 to 10,000	34	2,325
10,000 plus	26	2,900
Total	111	2,300

goals of the university; (3) makes for better cooperation with other members of the faculty.

Salary. The median salary for head residents, employed on a 10-months basis, was $230 per month plus food and lodging. After all perquisites were considered, the median salary was found to be approximately $1,000 per year less than the average income of an assistant professor. TABLE 1 reveals median salaries reported by size of institution.

Roles of Head Residents

Administrative. Most housing administrators agreed that head residents should be responsible for room assignments, room maintenance, residence hall programming, and interpretation of certain policies and regulations. There was almost complete agreement that head residents should have no responsibility for food service. Institutional food service has become a highly specialized function, and 94 per cent of the respondents said that head residents should not have to be concerned with it.

Counseling. Housing officials generally agreed on the counseling role of the head resident. Most administrators wanted the head resident, irrespective of training, to handle only the relatively minor counseling cases and to act as a referral agent on the serious ones. Ninety per cent of the responses favored this position, irrespective of size of school. Some confusion existed as to the meaning of "relatively minor" and "serious." This was an obvious deficiency in the study.

Disciplinary. Housing administrators did not agree on the disciplinary role of the head resident. They wanted her to have some authority for enforcement of the regulatory processes, but for what and to what extent was not determined. Many college and university administrators reported that their head residents were assigned administrative and disciplinary functions which tended seriously to reduce their effectiveness as counselors. For example, half of the housing officials preferred to have their head residents assess penalties on all minor cases of misbehavior which occurred in the residence halls. Two-thirds of the respondents wanted their head residents to have responsibilities for discipline beyond those of a counselor. In spite of this disciplinary role, however, there was almost unanimous agreement that head residents should be responsible for follow-up counseling on those residents whose conduct had been inappropriate. Preventive discipline, as a function of the head resident, was virtually ignored by the administrators. Since much of the literature on discipline in the residence hall stresses the importance of the head resident as an agent for preventive discipline, it would probably prove fruitful to study this area in greater detail.

Summary

Considerable confusion exists concerning the functions of residence halls in the overall goals of higher education. Most housing officers recognize the educational potential in residence halls as an important supplement to the classroom. They see the need to employ professionally trained head residents and the desirability of sufficient pay and status to attract and hold qualified personnel. Higher echelon administrative officials in many colleges and universities, however, are unable or unwilling to take the necessary steps to raise the educational standards of residence hall operation. Considerable disparity exists between what top level administrators say about the functions of residence halls and what they actually do. Although there are notable exceptions, in general the primary emphasis in the operation of residence halls for women students is still the provision of well-prepared food and the maintenance of comfortable, hygienic living facilities. The educational mission is secondary.

Conclusions

1. The head resident should be a professionally trained person, possessing at least a baccalaureate degree plus specialized training in counseling and guidance.

2. The head resident should be accorded pay and professional status equal to that of members of the academic faculty with comparable training and tenure.

3. Head residents should be assigned functions which are consistent with the over-all objectives of the residence hall program and which are compatable with sound educational theory.

References

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3. Committee on Training Residence Hall Administrators. *Thirty-ninth annual conference, The National Association of Student Personnel Administrators,* 1957.
4. Williamson, E. G. Students' residence: shelter or education? *Personnel guid. J.,* 1958, *36,* 392–397.

PHOTOGRAPHIC EXHIBIT AVAILABLE

"These Are Our Children," the outstanding photographic exhibit for the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth, is being made available without charge for exhibition throughout the country. This pictorial description of American youth in action was so well received at the recent White House Conference that it is being offered for group use to organizations in the United States. The White House Conference Office will act as a clearing house to bring potential sponsors within an area together and recommends that interested persons continue their inquiries but at the same time ascertain the possibility of cooperative sponsorship.

Groups interested in sponsoring "These Are Our Children" should send a choice of dates to the White House Conference on Children and Youth, 330 Independence Avenue, S.W., Washington 25, D. C. This should be done as soon as possible because the itinerary for the 1960–1961 tour is now being prepared.

Guidance Institutes—N.D.E.A.

KATHERINE FOSSETT

Since the momentous occasion of the adoption of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, guidance institutes have sprung up all over the country: institutes to better prepare counselors to assist in carrying out the multifactored purpose of American education. Many of these institutes will be of lasting value to the participants, but others will be remembered as another expression of an American custom to "climb on the band wagon," a band wagon which, unless carefully constructed, will be short-lived.

It seems wise, therefore, for an institution to engage in careful introspective deliberation before launching an educational craft that could sink before the first tidal wave of enthusiasm subsides. Certain basic characteristics of several long-established and successful counselor-preparatory programs can serve as guides for preliminary consideration before a college accepts the challenge of preparing personnel for effective roles in the guidance programs of our nation's schools.

Guides for Counselor Training

1. The college must be of the caliber essential for preparing educators of the highest quality. Just as the teacher of any traditional subject needs preparation in content and method, so, too, does the counselor need specific educational experiences. The very nature of school counseling demands proficiency based upon an interdisciplinary foundation composed not only of guidance and counseling techniques but also of psychology, philosophy, instructional methods, and administration and school finance.

In order for the institute experience to assist in the attainment of our educational goals, the instructional staff must be composed of highly qualified personnel with broad professional and experiential backgrounds. They must be persons well versed in their areas of specialization and, in addition, must be able to see their subjects, not as entities, but as parts of the educational mosaic. Specialists in theories of learning can only add frustration to the institute experience if their discipline is divorced from techniques of pupil appraisal. Meeting this requirement is no simple task for as one continues to delve more deeply into an area of specialization, he oftentimes loses sight of related disciplines. If the educational experience is to be of lasting value to the participant, those who teach must see themselves in proper perspective as members of the instructional team.

2. Institutional resources, in addition to competent instructional personnel, are imperative. A wealth of printed material abounds but single copies or limited samplings are insufficient. The library must be adequately equipped with traditional and current publications so as to offer factual data on every aspect of guidance and its contributing value to the individual. With the constant explosion of technological and sociological advancement, theory and techniques soon become obsolete. It is imperative, therefore, that current publications revealing new approaches based upon scientific investigations be available.

Provisions also must be made to test newly acquired techniques and skills. Many of the leading counselor preparatory programs

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in the country provide opportunities for the "intern" to receive actual counseling experience under the direction and supervision of professional personnel. Where the institute is part of the graduate program, practice in educational counseling, after careful preparatory training, can be provided in conjunction with the undergraduate program. Counselor trainees who show aptitude for the guidance profession can act as interviewers and referral agents for prospective students in the undergraduate program.

The institution should also consider the provision of consultative service by those who keep pace with non-collegiate advancements. Experts in occupational fields, research consultants, employment service representatives, and other agents should be available to enrich the program. Since counselors in public schools will be working with a cross section of the population, the institute must provide experiences commensurate with the task at hand.

3. Since the work of any school counselor is composed of activities ranging from the brief "yes or no" contacts to complex problems demanding psychological referral, the learning experiences incorporated within the scope of the institute must give the counselor more than a "speaking acquaintance" with the situations encountered on the job.

At the present time, no adequate description of the role of the counselor has been formulated. As long as this nebulous, unending sphere of operation exists, the counselor must have a working knowledge of many subjects beyond those required of classroom teachers. Provision for learning experience in techniques of test selection, administration and interpretation, educational planning with emphasis upon both terminal and continuing programs, occupational information use, individual counseling, utilization of community resources, and research and evaluation are imperative. Each plays an integral part in the counselor's day and cannot be excluded from the total preparatory experience. Methods of identifying and assisting the academically talented, the slow learner, the underachiever to attain their maximum potential must be emphasized. With the existing pupil-counselor ratio, it is virtually impossible to maintain an individual relationship. The counselor, therefore, must be proficient in methods of group guidance. The content of the institute must be so diverse as to be directly proportional to the student population which guidance serves. No one aspect can be emphasized over the other.

4. The college or university which is considering the sponsorship of a guidance institute must examine its own philosophy in light of the extent to which it can individualize learning experiences. Since the entire guidance program is based upon the recognition of and belief in the individual, instruction methods and course content must exemplify the same philosophy. The dichotomy which often exists between theory and practice has no place in this program.

The principles which guide learning experiences of the child must also apply to the graduate student. The counselor trainee brings with him to the classroom all his hopes and aspirations, his abilities and limitations, and the many personal and professional mores which exert pressures upon him from all directions. He brings with him the results of the forces operating within the area where he works whether it be the overcrowded metropolitan city or the rural community. His educational and experiential background is different from that of his colleagues.

The institution must accept these differences and provide learning experiences which begin where the trainee is and direct him as far as his potential will permit. The course content must be of sufficient depth, breadth, and scope to provide activities which have meaning for each participant and his unique situation. The college must be willing to invest time and talent in providing a multiplicity of learning situations or the guidance philosophy will not permeate the institute experience.

5. In order for the college to protect itself and the countless number of school systems which it serves, careful screening of participants is essential. The National Defense Education Act states that counselors and teachers preparing to be counselors are

eligible for admission to the program. Not all of these persons, however, will have the personal characteristics, professional qualities, and leadership abilities essential for proficiency in the guidance field. The admissions committee must formulate essential qualifications and adequate screening devices so that only promising professional personnel will be admitted.

Among the many characteristics essential for professional counselors of the highest caliber are ability to empathize rather than sympathize, ability to suggest and bring about understanding and self-direction rather than to dominate and dictate, ability to withhold judgments and base decisions and opinions on sound and adequate evidence, ability to understand and accept each individual as a unique being. Many other characteristics could also be enumerated but each institution must set forth those which it feels are essential for personnel who guide the nation's youth.

For additional protection, the college must formulate specific screening devices which will provide as much information as possible about prospective participants.

Letters of application from the candidate can provide valuable information. The usual personal data form with an additional page for the applicant to present a brief biographical sketch will aid in the selection of participants. In order to determine the candidate's philosophy, a brief case study might be presented with the request that the candidate write how he would cope with the situation. This technique is used by some institutions in the selection of student personnel assistants.

It is essential that the candidate present letters of recommendation from his principal, supervisor, and other professional persons who are familiar with his teaching and counseling work. Included in these communications should be an evaluation of his ability to work with others, ability to communicate effectively, professional attitude, creative ability, initiative, sense of responsibility, and maturity and stability.

If at all possible, the candidate should be interviewed by a member of the institute staff. Paper qualifications are not sufficient. Personal appearance, ability to verbalize, confidence in self, poise are only a few of the characteristics which cannot be stated in written communications.

Personal interviews or telephone conversations with supervisory personnel can yield valuable information as to the individual's qualifications for counseling work. All sources of information must be tapped.

6. The institution must take time both during and after the institute experience to evaluate the activity in light of its objectives. The experiential value to each individual participant must be determined. This may not be a pleasant experience at the time for the college might see that the content is not meeting the needs of the participants or that needless duplication of learning experiences persists. This, however, can be a rewarding realization if the evaluation occurs while there remains time to alter and adjust the program.

It seems essential that certain basic questions be considered in this evaluation. What is the primary purpose of the institute? What do the public schools need? What do the counselors need? Is the content planned so as to meet the needs of the participants? Beyond the core of common learnings essential for all counselors, is the remainder of the program flexible enough to include all areas of interest and ability? How do the participants view the experience? Can they see the continuity between the learning experience and the on-the-job situation? How might the program be improved? Is adequate attention being given to techniques for practical application of theory? What provisions are being made for follow-up evaluation after the program is completed? These queries must be considered and answered if the institute is to be of value.

The National Defense Education Act has provided one of the most beneficial stimuli to the furthering of the entire guidance movement, a movement to assist in the stabilization of American education in an era of uncertainty. The eye of the public is upon us and if we fail, we have only ourselves to blame.

COUNSELING THE BLIND

JOHN E. JORDAN and WILLIAM F. HUNTER

WESTERN SOCIETY has for the past several centuries accepted the right of blind children or adults to a full and progressive education. However, society's stated acceptance of the blind has not often been put into operational use. The blind have been accepted and then located in schools where they were entirely segregated from society. They have been regarded as being acceptable only in certain locations or as having certain personality deficiencies which were inherent in the problem of blindness.

The blind, from an educational standpoint, have also been viewed as "people without vision." There has not been the recognition or the realization that the blind are not just sighted people who have lost their vision, but that they possess some distinctively and qualitatively different problems. This is particularly true of the congenitally blind.

The emotional problems of blind children and adults have been of growing concern to the psychological profession in recent years. Samuel Hayes was one of the first individuals to collect and interpret data relating to the intellectual capacity and academic achievement of blind children [7]. However, educational and other types of programs devised by society for the blind have not taken into account the full range of opportunities available for rehabilitating this group. These programs have been mainly academic and vocational in nature. This has assumed that the primary needs of the blind were for academic preparation and vocational placement. There has been little operational awareness of the fact that the personal-social implications of blindness far outweigh the differentiating factors of academic and vocational needs.

The growth of guidance and counseling services within the public school and the growing consciousness of the total mental health picture in modern society has, at last, posed an awareness of the personal-social needs of all handicapping conditions, including loss of vision and blindness [6]. Thus, within many school settings, counseling is now being viewed as preventive rather than only remedial.

The Counselor's Approach

Immediately following blindness, the individual enters a tightly knit program directed toward his rehabilitation or habilitation. The congenitally blind child is also a participant in a tightly knit educational program from nursery school through college. It is the purpose of this article to discuss some of the theoretical assumptions, practical problems, procedures, and methodology involved in counseling the blind and to outline an operational approach to guide the counselor in helping such individuals to adjust to the world at large. Too frequently the adjustment of the blind individual is accomplished by providing a special set of circumstances removed from the frustrations which would ordinarily confront him in the everyday world. This level of adjustment represents no more than

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a compromise and does not lead to the development of realistic attitudes which help these individuals to function in the normal situations of a sighted environment.

Literature on counseling the blind has emphasized the commonalities of all children and the fact that blind children do not differ significantly from regular children. These articles have further emphasized the integration of blind with sighted in all areas such as education, community living, and reality of blindness on an integrated basis within his self-concept. In other words, the blind person must be able to see himself as blind, but not conceptualize this condition as a limiting factor on his possibilities to be a whole person.

The counselor needs to know the basic medical information about blindness itself. This includes such things as etiology, course of the disease or condition, treatment, prognosis, concomitant effects, and psychological characteristics such as intelligence and academic achievement. The counselor should also understand the societal provisions for the blind, including the educational, medical, economic, and vocational rehabilitation. This obviously includes knowledge of the community agencies which can be of service to the blind individual.

The attitudes of the counselor toward blindness are very important, and he should come to know and understand them before he can be regarded as having an adequate education or preparation as a counselor of the blind. These attitudes and feelings about blindness, as a disabling condition, will affect the quality of his voice, including intonation, inflection, and rhythm. The counselor must be aware of the effect of extraneous noise and non-verbal communication in counseling the blind. Extraneous noises, such as shuffling papers, can denote to the blind that he is being ignored or that the counselor's attention is being directed elsewhere during the interview.

The sighted person receives many cues in counseling from non-verbal communication. Behavior like glances, turning the head, raising the eyebrows, et cetera, connote many things in the counseling interview. Since these cues are not available to the blind person, non-verbal communication with him relies primarily on auditory cues.

The Problem of Acceptance

In blindness there is a need for the individual to develop psychological acceptance of his handicap. The person who becomes blind must adapt, in various ways, his former self. The inner person may be altered. His aspirations, his interpersonal relationships, his body image, his concepts of self, and his relationship to the physical world may be strongly affected, if not completely changed. Barker and associates refer to this as the somatopsychology of blindness [*1*].

A blind person may refuse to accept his blindness for a number of reasons. Perhaps he cannot accept this handicap because it means he is being punished for his own or his parents' sins. Another person may give blindness sexual meanings. Another may feel it means an end to his acceptance by society as a valid person. Another is traumatized by the economic problems of blindness. Still another cannot accept his blindness because he resents the feelings of pity he believes the sighted feel for him. However, it is basic to any rehabilitation that he accept this change in self. It must take place before he can effectively accomplish all the new learning that is essential for his future development. The counseling process is one means which may be used to assist the blind person in reorienting his self-concept.

Counselors are cognizant of the emotional difficulties arising with the onset of puberty and adolescence, and individuals working with blind students should be on the lookout for such problems during this period. In our society, adolescence is possibly the most painful period of life due to its physiological and psychological upheavals. It is a time of emotional turmoil which accompanies development of sexual maturity. The dependent role of the child is being discarded for that of an adult; defiance of authority during this period is not unusual and is accompanied by a strong need for group acceptance and identity [*10*].

Some of the special preoccupations of the adolescent make acceptance of blindness especially difficult: (1) The importance of bodily attractiveness in the female, and masculine strength and independence in the male. These preoccupations are related to sexual fears which are accentuated in the blind adolescent. (2) The problems of developing independence in an adolescent who must accept certain dependencies which are characteristic for blindness. (3) The exhibitionism accompanied with the desire for anonymity of the adolescent.

Formidable resistance is sometimes put up by the blind person to any change in his self-concept. This may be due to a lack of ability on his part. A complete diagnostic evaluation including a medical examination, social history, psychological examination, and an educational evaluation should be accomplished prior to the initiation of any counseling with a blind individual [*2*].

For counseling to be effective, a minimum level of intellectual ability and verbalization is necessary [*3*]. During the testing situation the examiner can gain a great deal of clinical information in order to make a prognosis as to the outcome of any counseling which may be done. Many times blind children, due to a lack of early environmental stimulation and training, seem to lack the ability and insight to make a satisfactory change in their self-concept. This is especially true of the deaf-blind [*5*].

In assisting the blind individual in changing his self-concept, the counselor should offer himself as a relatively fixed, warm, nonthreatening figure. He must not take responsibility since the blind individual tends to be hostile toward authority figures during this period of self-reorganization. A facilitating atmosphere is one in which the client sees the counselor as an available resource for the resolution of his many internal stresses which holds the minimal threat [*9*].

It will be wise to remember that the client is first an individual and then a blind person. When he can deal with his personal situations adequately, he will deal more effectively with problems of blindness. Sometimes problems that are usually found in adolescence occur earlier and the counselor should be aware of this possibility.

Intercommunication Difficulties

Many blind individuals have exceptional difficulty in expressing their emotions. Even in cases in which they are in constant contact with teachers and peer groups, superficial relationships are the rule rather than the exception. Especially impressive is the difficulty many students show in discussing their reactions to emotion-filled situations.

This reticence toward the expression of emotion is not limited to the blind. Our culture views emotional experiences as a most intimate aspect of the individual and the expression of emotion as something of an exposure of the inner self. Consequently, such communication of feeling is a measure of trust and closeness reserved for close relationships [*4*].

This difficulty in discussing feelings, moods, and emotions has many derivatives in the inner life of blind individuals. For example, many clients feel that their fears, anxieties, and emotional problems are peculiar to themselves. It is amazing to a blind client to learn that another blind person feels uncomfortable in silence or is very fearful when lost.

While such feelings of uniqueness of emotions are not unusual in the sighted, they are probably much more common with the blind, because of their limited ability to observe the emotional reactions of others. In some cases, blind clients feel that their emotions are mental anomalities which serve to make them different than others. A more stable self-concept is attained when they learn that their strong feelings need not be signs of pathology and that sighted individuals possess them also.

The Counseling Process

The psychological make-up and age of the blind client are prime factors in the counseling interview. The young client or child can be dealt with in a more matter-of-fact manner than the older individual who may expect a more solicitous attitude.

Whether the client is a child in school or comes as a counseling client to a vocational counseling center will make a difference in the kind of arrangement necessary.

Children in a school setting are accustomed to a more informal type of appointment and especially those in an institutional setting or residential school for the blind. The nature of the problem or situation which initiates the counseling interview is also important. A vocational problem, a personal-social situation, or a school discipline case may necessitate a different approach to the counseling interview.

The counseling process with the blind is qualitatively different from that of the sighted in certain aspects. It is necessary to be more specific in making appointments and arranging other conditions since the blind may have to depend upon others for transportation and direction to the counselor's office. The counselor's readiness for the appointment is more important for the blind versus the sighted client.

The counselor should be ready for the interview and not be required to shuffle through papers or the case file looking for various items of information. If this becomes necessary, he should make some comment as, "It will take me a few seconds to find that information." Such apparently innocuous activities as tapping the pencil may connote to the individual client irritation from the counselor or the desire to hurry the interview.

Mobility is a problem of the blind the counselor should be aware of and handle properly. While the blind individual may require direction or assistance to the counselor's office or to a chair in the counseling room, he must not be maneuvered in a manner which appears to be a manipulation of his rights as an individual.

It is necessary to orient the blind individual to the room if it is unknown to him. Such statements as, "This room is eight by ten feet and your chair is located here, facing the light," will give the individual the necessary environmental orientation. A more or less detailed explanation may be required according to the client.

It is usually necessary to structure the surface of the interview for the blind individual. He comes expecting a certain kind of structured activity due to the fact that he has been dealt with in this manner much of his life. If the interview is a situation which is aimed at dealing with personal-social conflicts, the counselor may desire to allow the client to structure the interview. If the interview is to be a specific one such as vocational counseling or a disciplinary problem in school, the purpose of the interview should be structured for the blind individual so that he knows its purpose. While this is also true for the sighted individual, it is more true for the blind, since he must depend on auditory cues more than the sighted individual.

The perceptual difficulties of the blind are a differentiating factor in the counseling interview. A blind person's perception of a certain kind of a job or a certan idea may differ markedly from that of the sighted person. The perception may be in spatial relations, abstract ideas, or concrete life experiences [*8*]. The blind individual has often experienced less of the everyday acculturation, such as visiting stores and acquiring the life experiences of the sighted individual.

It is apparent that the intellectual level of the client will also be a significant variable. This must be considered, as the same condition which caused the blindness may bring about some damage or restriction to the brain that will exert a limiting effect on intellectual development. The emotional stability of the blind individual will also be a significant variable in the counseling process. If the individual has been subjected to repeated and severe emotional stress because of his blindness, he may be in need of more intensive psychotherapy or psychiatric care.

Counseling Relationships

In order for an individual to express feeling with any degree of comfort, he must be aware of the manner in which his communication is received. As the sighted person offers some indication of his emotions, he

receives permission to proceed from the smiles, sympathetic faces, and nods of the counselor. In short, the client must receive, in some way, constant stimuli from the counselor in order to sustain the necessary verbalization to proceed with the counseling.

The visual cues which are used by the sighted are not available as stimuli to the blind individual. The blind consequently substitute other cues not usually necessary for those who have sight. For example, a blind client may observe the counselor's rate of breathing, the shuffling of his feet, or the number of times he clears his throat. These and other audible cues are substituted for visual cues relating to the attentiveness, interest, sympathy, and general response of the blind person's listener. Often these audible cues are not sufficient to permit free expression of emotion. This inability to assess clearly the listener's reaction may explain the relative ineffectiveness noted in some of the communications of the blind.

There are some techniques available which may help to facilitate the counseling process with blind personnel. It is helpful to frequently interpolate grunts, *un-hum's, yeses,* and various audible cues to substitute for the visual cues which indicate to the client that his communication is being received and understood. The verbal note of expression lets the blind client know the counselor's position in regard to his communication.

Another point to be considered in dealing with the blind is the difficulty in assessing emotional reaction by studying facial expression. The face is generally a poor indicator of emotion in blind individuals, and especially so in the congenitally blind who must learn about facial expression through secondary sources. For this reason it is helpful to watch the fingers and hands for movements and evidence of tension, in attempting to assess the emotional state of clients. In the blind, the fingers are substitutes for the eyes and are the most expressive of emotional states.

Summary

The article has intended to indicate some of the needs in the counseling of blind individuals, particularly of children and adolescents. It has attempted to point out some of the theory on which to build a qualitatively different approach in counseling the blind. An operational approach to counseling the blind was tentatively outlined, including such things as the significant factors in the counselor's education as well as the counseling interview itself. The research on perceptual difficulties points to a need for establishing whether there is a qualitative difference in the counseling methodology for blind individuals.

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Use of M.M.P.I. Items to Predict College Achievement

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The study being reported grew out of an earlier attempt to determine if MMPI scale scores would discriminate between groups of high and low achievers in a college group. Results of the earlier study [3] were favorable enough to encourage further exploration of the use of a self-report instrument for predicting achievement. The positive correlations between achievement and MMPI scale scores were not high enough to be of value in predicting scholastic success. They did, however, suggest that perhaps there were items which were being answered differently by high achievers and low achievers. It was felt that perhaps these items were not grouped in any of the existing scales and thus their discriminating power was being masked by the scoring method. An investigation was conducted to determine if such items did exist and would prove to be consistent discriminators. Three hypotheses were set-up to be investigated.

1. That items exist in the MMPI which are answered differently by high and low achievers.
2. That such items could be combined to form a scale which would yield meaningful predictions of achievement.
3. That such items could be grouped in such a manner as to warrant forming some hypothesis about the personality structure of low and high achievers.

Procedure and Results

The study was conducted on a sample of students from a midwestern, land-grant college with an enrollment of approximately 1,800 undergraduate students.

The initial data consisted of the MMPI records of 32 male, beginning freshmen. This was the entire entering class in a spring quarter. At the end of the spring quarter, grade-point averages were computed for each student and the group was ranked according to their achievement. The upper quartile ($N = 8$) was designated high achieving and the lower quartile, low achieving. Responses for each item in the MMPI were then tabulated for each group. The tabulation was made on the basis of how many students in each group had answered true to each item, and if a difference of three or more T answers existed between the groups, the item was labeled discriminatory. The same results would have been obtained by scoring in the false direction, since it was the difference between the groups which was important. The choice of a difference of three as a critical difference was a subjective one.

By the use of this technique, 72 items were selected and combined into a scale which was tentatively labeled an achievement scale (Z). Although the N of the groups used to select the items was very small, the fairly large number of items discovered was encouraging. In an earlier study involving both males and females, Altus [1] found 26 items which by his definition were discriminatory.

Scoring keys were prepared for the achievement scale and the entire group's MMPI's were scored for this new variable. The scores obtained were then correlated with grade-point averages for the first quarter the group was in school. As would be logically expected, since this group's

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achievement had served as the criterion for selecting the items, the correlation was strongly positive ($r = 0.72$).

At the beginning of the fall quarter, the entire male, entering freshman group ($N = 545$) took the MMPI. A random sample of 100 students was selected as a validation group. Each of these students' MMPI was scored on the experimental scale (Z). At the end of the quarter, the grade-point average was computed for each student in the group. The Pearson product-moment correlation between the Z scale score and grade-point average turned out to be strongly positive ($r = +0.61$). This indicated a predictive efficiency superior to that of an ability test, r between grades and ACE scores being +0.39. The correlation between ACE scores and experimental scale (Z) scores ($r = +0.10$) was low, indicating that a factor other than ability was being measured by the new scale. A multiple correlation between Z scale-ACE and grades proved to be gratifyingly high ($r = +0.69$). It was definitely indicated that this new grouping of items was identifying some factor or factors related to obtaining of college grades.

Two values could be seen as growing out of the results as they were accumulated. The first was an indication of a possible psychometric tool which might contribute something unique to the task of predicting success or failure in college work. Further validation in varying situations would, of course, be necessary before this would be an acceptable tool for guidance practice. Second, and perhaps even more promising, was the opportunity to formulate subjective hypotheses about high and low achievers as a guide to continued research on this topic.

The items which low achievers tended to answer true more frequently than high achievers were as follows: 20, 28, 38, 40, 64, 80, 84, 89, 93, 116, 136, 162, 165, 167, 181, 208, 214, 224, 248, 250, 271, 274, 280, 296, 298, 313, 314, 316, 319, 322, 327, 336, 345, 355, 356, 358, 363, 370, 380, 386, 390, 391, 408, 418, 434, 435, 437, 440, 456, 462, 469, 475, 488, 530, 536, 551, 566.

The items which high achievers tended to answer true more frequently than low achievers were as follows: 4, 78, 79, 127, 226, 237, 270, 399, 401, 407, 428, 429, 493, 509, 522.

From an inspection of the items, it was possible to form some tentative hypotheses about certain common personality traits of these two groups of students.

The low-achieving group appeared to be men who were emotionally responsive to their environment and were compelled to do something about dispelling their tensions. The tempo of their life seemed to be faster than that of the high achievers, although their activity was not necessarily productively oriented. Low achievers seemed to be rather sensitive but to feel that emotions should be concealed as a sign of weakness. Strength and power appeared to be important to these people. Weaknesses in other people were seen as something to be exploited and their own weaknesses concealed. The world seemed to be a hostile competitive place to these people. Warmth and acceptance of other people were apparently lacking. Projection seemed to be a defense mechanism of great usefulness to this group. Social mores were not internalized but respected only as they served the individual's best interests. There appear to be many similarities between this group and the "authoritarian personality."

The high-achieving group appeared to be men who were more interested in verbal activities. They seemed to project less, discriminate better, and to be emotionally less easily aroused. They appear to tolerate tension much better and to live at a more relaxed, confident tempo. Gough [2] has postulated a theory that academic achievement is an aspect of social adjustment. Certain self-statements of these two groups would tend to support such a theory.

Summary

Through an item analysis of MMPI records of male freshmen, evidence was compiled to support the following hypotheses:

1. That high- and low-achieving male students tend to make different self-reports about themselves on a questionnaire such as the MMPI.

2. That such self-reports can be used to predict future academic achievement of male students.

3. That certain trends seem to exist in the identified items which permit analysis and tentative hypothesis formation regarding the personalities of low and high achievers.

The results in general were encouraging for continuing the study of the use of a self-report instrument for predicting achievement. Since the scale was developed on such a small N, it should be further refined and cross-validiated on groups in various other settings, and the use of the items outside the format of the MMPI should be explored. Also it should be noted that the entire study was done on males. The use of projectives to study individuals who score at the extremes of this scale would be indicated as a step in exploring some of the hypotheses about low and high achievers.

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ONE SULLEN BOY

His father, unmet and unknown,
The mother overworked and overwhelmed.
Six siblings, assorted ages and sizes,
Three dreary rooms, heat sporadic.

The baby brother but two years old,
Caught cold suddenly,
And more suddenly died!

For the teacher next morning, his story—
"I couldn't do my spelling last night."

SAMUEL G. GILBURT

From *The Graduate School Record*, Long Island University, Spring, 1960.

Research by States On the Teaching of Occupations

DANIEL SINICK and ROBERT HOPPOCK

WITH THE SUPPORT of the National Vocational Guidance Association, the authors conducted a survey in 1959 like the one completed five years earlier [1]. The person in charge of guidance services in each of the states and territories was sent a letter requesting "copies of any available reports of any research done in your state on any aspect of the teaching of occupations." Responses in this second survey were received from 29 states including Alaska and Hawaii.

North Dakota cited its latest annual report covering 220 schools. The number of these (presumably secondary) schools reporting each of various practices is shown below:

Units on occupational information	187
File of occupational information	113
Career days and career conferences	78
Supervised work experience	18
Occupational surveys	16
Semester course in occupational information	13

Montana's latest annual report, covering 173 schools, revealed the following data:

Number of Schools	School Enrollment	Occupations Course	Occupations Units: 9th Grade	Occupations Units: 11th or 12th
94	Below 100	27	20	33
44	100–199	6	14	22
18	200–399	4	9	14
17	400 and up	7	5	12

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Occupations courses were reported as taught chiefly at the ninth-grade level. Occupations units were reported as taught chiefly in ninth-grade social studies and in twelfth-grade civics.

Arkansas solicited student opinion regarding the proper placement and appropriate length of occupations courses. This state conducted "an intensive evaluation of guidance programs over a period of four years in Arkansas (1951–1955) during which time we evaluated some 52 programs. We found occupations being taught in units anywhere from two weeks in length to one full year and on all levels from grades nine through twelve. In each of these schools we asked a cross section of students their preference so far as organized classes of occupations are concerned. They invariably told us that a one-semester course in occupations should be required on ninth grade level or sooner. They felt that one year is too much; it gets boresome. They felt that anything less than one semester is not enough. They definitely preferred a one-semester, organized course than shorter units in various subject matter fields."

Programs by Radio

The Hawaii Department of Public Instruction, together with the Hawaii Employers Council, the Hawaii Branch of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, and other community organizations sponsored a year-long radio series called "What's My Future?" Twenty-four programs were presented during the 1957–1958 school year, with 120 speakers discussing occupations, industries, and such topics as

"How to Look for a Job" and "College . . . Who Should Go and Where."

A year-end survey found that about 20,000 students in grades nine through twelve in 27 public secondary schools had listened to the programs during school hours. Most of the schools listened to the direct broadcasts; others listened to the tapes later.

Specific ways the programs were used varied among the schools. "Some used them in their social studies classes particularly in connection with a study of vocations. Usually a discussion period followed the broadcast. Others heard them in school assemblies. Still others preferred to set aside rooms where the broadcasts could be heard during special activities and lunch periods. Some programs were heard during 'subject classes' such as English, homemaking, shop, etc. Several schools, unable to use the programs during school hours, gave credit to students who gave special reports after listening to the Sunday re-broadcasts at home. Finally, tapes were played at school Career Day sessions and followed by discussions led by visiting speakers."

Utah reported a prospective research project which was awaiting the support of a private foundation. The plan calls for the preparation and then the combined use of tape recordings and color slides describing particular occupations. The tapes and slides are to be used with ninth-grade students in schools selected for the study. Ninth-graders in an equal number of schools will serve as controls. "The experimental and control schools will be equated, as far as possible, on variable factors such as size, social and economic environment, learning atmosphere, and curriculum."

The design of the Utah study is one of those recommended in an article which previously reviewed research on the teaching of occupations [2]. Other suggested research designs may be found in the same source.

Prospectus

The completed and prospective research reported above, limited though it is, points the way toward the considerable quantity of research that must be done if substantial improvement in the teaching of occupations is to be achieved.

While other states were not as yet able to report research of this nature, many of them expressed their recognition of the need for such research. "There is definitely a need for research on the teaching of occupations," declared Kentucky. Wyoming affirmed that "information of this type is badly needed and we hope to start a research project soon." "We will look forward with interest," wrote Alaska, "to the publication of your material in the *Personnel and Guidance Journal.*"

Other letters disclosed one reason for the limited number of studies thus far accomplished at the state level. "The Department of Education," explained one state, "has not undertaken any defined research in the teaching of occupations. This prerogative has been left to the various superintendents of our cities/towns." Another state indicated that, "in spite of local autonomy," research is encouraged through the provision of financial support.

As the aim of the present authors is to encourage research on the teaching of occupations (though without the provision of financial support), they welcome reports of such research, whether done by states, school systems, single schools, teachers, or students. Reports received will be summarized and published in this *Journal.*

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DISSEMINATION OF GUIDANCE INFORMATION USING DATA-PROCESSING EQUIPMENT

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The increasing emphasis upon the teacher's role in guidance necessitates a ready access to individual pupil records. Such records are usually kept on file in the counselor's office or in the official record room in a secondary school. With secondary schools in Baltimore County varying in size from 1,000 to 2,700 pupils and with staffs ranging from 45 to 110 teachers, the communication problem became intense.

How could each of the 100 teachers extract the requisite counseling information for each of the 175 or more pupils assigned to him? It would take at least three minutes for one teacher to locate, scan, and record pertinent information for one pupil. To get the information for all pupils assigned, a teacher would need nearly nine hours of continuous searching. Where some seven teachers have the same pupil, a real bottleneck develops particularly in the opening days of school when all teachers need access to these records.

Instead of having the teacher come to the cumulative records it was proposed to give selected items from the records to the teacher. In short, it was proposed that selected items of guidance information be placed on punched cards and by means of data-processing equipment be given to all teachers.

This was the germ of the idea; the details were worked out in a pilot study involving one grade in each of six high schools and one entire senior high school of 1,800 pupils.

A selected list of items of guidance information prepared by a committee of counselors included the following:

1. Pupil's name
2. Homeroom section
3. Date of birth
4. Sex
5. IQ decile
6. Curriculum pursued (Academic, Commercial, General)
7. Type of school attended previous year
8. Transported by bus
9. Clinical report on file
10. Number of days absent last year
11. Achievement test scores
12. National Merit Scholarship Qualifying Test Scores
13. Local option—4 to 10 spaces were made available for local option so each faculty could code any information they desired. Most schools used these spaces for the previous year's marks in various subjects.

Lists of pupils (called listings) were prepared for distribution to counselors, teachers, and principals prior to the opening of school in September. These included:

1. Homeroom rolls
2. Class rolls for each major subject period in the day
3. Pupils ranked by IQ decile
4. Pupils ranked by various test score deciles
5. Pupils arranged by date of birth

These listings contained all of the items of information chosen by the committee of counselors. It is possible, however, to prepare listings containing only selected items of information.

One principal had a listing made of pupils *not* in the fourth period classes to help locate pupils who should have been in study hall but were illegally taking more than one lunch period. Using this method it took less time to identify and eliminate such violations.

There is an old maxim in economics "You don't get anything for nothing." Aware of

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this maxim we ask, "What did the receipt of the items and listings of guidance information enumerated above cost the counselors, the teachers, and the principals in time and energy?"

The cost to them was that of completing the questionnaire below for each pupil in the school.[1] However, it is possible and certainly anticipated in Baltimore County to modify the schedule card (at least the office copy) to include the items on the questionnaire and thus obviate the need for the questionnaire—thus reducing the time and energy needed.

After the first year only about a quarter of the work involved in filling out the questionnaires will be required of the schools as most of the items of information will be the same from year to year. In the case of testing information, all changes in selected tests will go directly from the testing office to the key punch operator making it unnecessary for the school to complete this information on the questionnaire.

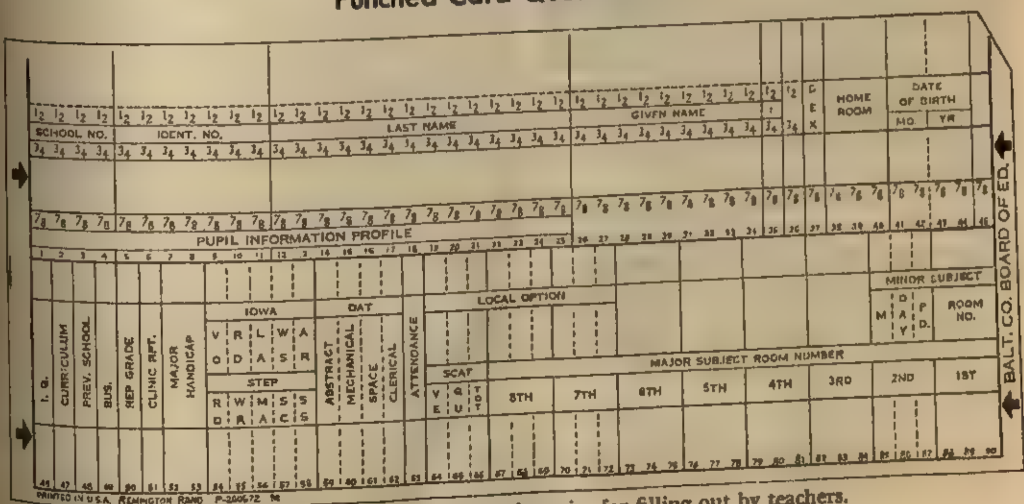
Programming and operating data-processing equipment requires expert knowledge of a kind not usually within the realm of the guidance counselor. Few guidance counselors or guidance committees can set up a program as outlined above by themselves. They will need to consult with a specialist in data-processing equipment. They will tell the specialist what end results (listings, rankings) they need and the specialist can say whether these things are feasible and if so, what the approximate cost will be in time, work, and money.

Where school systems have data-processing equipment, the primary use of this equipment is usually financial accounting. *The same equipment used for financial accounting can be used to disseminate guidance information as described in this article.* Another recourse if the system does not have data-processing equipment is to *have a service bureau do the complete job* with the only task required of the school that of filling in the questionnaires.

The following equipment was used to disseminate the guidance information described above: key punch, sorter, reproducer, interpreter, and tabulator.

Three carbon copies were made of most listings so that they could be distributed to several people. For example, a copy of the listings sent to each teacher was retained in the principal's office in order that he or a supervisor could use it when visiting a class or for other purposes. The counselors also had a copy of the class lists; they would thus have readily available information about the classmates of a counselee as well as information about the counselee himself.

Punched Card Questionnaire



[1] The reproduced punched card doubles as a questionnaire for filling out by teachers.

Guidance in Practice

Orientation of Students Employed as Part-Time Office Workers on a University Campus

ALICE RECTOR and BONNIE LOCKWOOD

Giving leadership to the orientation of new student employees is one phase of the student employment program at Southern Illinois University. Each year increasing numbers of high school graduates, who must take some responsibility in earning funds to defray a portion of the cost of their college education, seek financial assistance in the form of part-time work.

Many of these students arrive on the University campus without having had any remunerative work experience; yet suddenly they find themselves confronted with new adjustments to make in school, along with taking the new responsibilities of such work.

Recognizing the need for an expanded program to meet the needs of competent youth seeking financial assistance via part-time work at Southern Illinois University and also realizing the limitations of employing inexperienced, immature students to accomplish work that was necessary to the functioning of the University, the administrators of the student employment program with the assistance of a faculty committee initiated orientation programs for students entering part-time employment. Such programs were set up in several areas of work, using a variety of methods: (1) pre-school workshops; (2) on-the-job training; (3) in-service training such as study courses, seminars, and weekly (non-credit) class laboratory work.

Background

The Student Work Office at Southern Illinois University is a centralized office which acts as a referral agency for all part-time student jobs in a University-wide program. The functions of this office with respect to the students include: interviewing and screening applicants on the basis of objective test scores; securing recommendations and confirmations of students' financial needs and abilities from high school officials; referring qualified students to job openings; counseling with students with respect to balanced programs of work and activities and other problems that arise related to employment; working with faculty and staff in determining the need for student help, the type, and quality of skills desired; evaluating students' work experiences; and approving authorizations for pay rates and work schedules for all students working on the campus.

Another function of the Student Work Office, in cooperation with the Advisement and Sectioning Center, is that of approving time blocks for students' work prior to the scheduling of their classes. This permits the students to be available for work for two, three, or four consecutive hours per day as needed by their employers.

Student jobs are classified into six major categories: instructional and research; technical and supervisory; clerical; service and maintenance work; special jobs; and extra classifications. This classified system permits a universal pay base with graduations in pay rates according to the type and quality of work and tends to eliminate inequalities in pay rates for similar work and training, the likelihood of indiscriminate assignment to positions, unnecessary turnover, and job-hopping on the part of the students. It further permits the faculty to choose student workers from carefully screened candidates.

One classification of student jobs that is University-wide and in which a large number of students are employed is that of the clerical and stenographic positions in the various departments of the University. Thus a pre-school workshop, held three days prior to New Student Week, was organized to instruct students who had been selected for such positions.

Activating the Orientation Program

One of the first steps taken was to try to sieve out from the diverse University departments and divi-

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sions the common areas in which training was needed.

A series of meetings, with about 20 supervisors at each meeting, was arranged. The leader of the discussion, a staff member in the Student Work Office, outlined for the group the ideas already formulated for improving student employment: better screening; the use of time blocks for working students; the pre-employment workshop; and a manual of reference. The supervisors were asked to help in defining the areas to be covered in the manual and in the training program—areas common to most student office workers that could be profitably discussed in the limited time of a three-day workshop. The usuable ideas were organized in outline form.

Preparing the Manual

With this outline, a *Manual for Office Workers* was prepared to serve a twofold purpose: one, as a textbook during the pre-employment workshop; and two, as a reference book for students and faculty in the campus offices. This manual is an abbreviated secretary's reference book with samples and explanations of commonly used campus forms appended.

Orientation Workshop

In planning the workshop, stress was placed on good work attitudes, good telephone and receptionist techniques, conventions and customs regarding the campus, the use of campus forms, the over-all organization of the University, filing rules, and the typing of tables and manuscripts.

The student work program is presented as an opportunity for working students to develop good work habits, attitudes, skills, and knowledge. The University wants to help them secure an education, but the students must help to do the vital work to which they are assigned, representing the University as an institution of higher education should be represented.

Students are advised that they will need to give extra effort, especially at first, to make a successful job adjustment; but should they fail in their first attempt, the Student Work Office will give them additional opportunity as long as they are sincerely trying.

Carefully chosen faculty and staff personnel are used to conduct the workshop. They must not only be outstandingly competent in the areas they present, but they must be able to hold the attention of the student audience.

In addition to choosing carefully the personnel to conduct the workshop, it is also essential that lectures be intermingled with demonstrations and activities in which the students participate. A list of some of the topics used in one workshop will demonstrate this:

Your Job at Southern (speech)

Meeting the Public by Phone (speech with film and tape recordings by students)

Meeting the Public by Letter (speech with opaque projector)

Sources of Information for Campus Secretaries (speech with illustrations)

University Forms (student participation in filling in forms)

Office Technique Demonstrations

Wise Use of Office Supplies (speech with illustrations)

Office Etiquette (speech)

Know Your Campus Organization (introductory talk)

Campus Tour of Key Offices

Planning Big Mailings (talk with demonstration)

Filing and Indexing (review of basic filing rules with student participation)

Manuscript Writing (talk with illustrations)

Case Studies (a role-playing presentation by students of common human relations problems of student employees, followed by audience discussion)

Summary

Giving the student concentrated information prior to beginning a job does not insure complete understanding on the part of the student of his specific functions in his particular work, nor does it guarantee that the student will use the information as instructed.

However, reports from supervisors, from the student participants, and from the staff indicate that the workshops are an effective orientation procedure. With respect to supervision, the new student office worker acquires general information concerning the University and its functions that lessen the details of "breaking in" a new employee; that afford some degree of uniformity in office techniques throughout the campus; and that promote better supervisor-student relationships in making the student aware of his obligations and responsibilities to the success of the work program.

With respect to the students, the well-oriented student office worker enters the job with a greater degree of efficiency and self-confidence; with knowledge of the general policies of the work program and its relation to other phases of student life; and with an awareness of the value of part-time employment to the University and to the student's educational experiences.

Selection of Engineering Students for an Abbreviated Mathematics Sequence

ROBERT E. MILLER

The recently increased interest in education for the sciences has brought into focus a number of complex problems. Russell [1] has presented a preliminary survey of these and indicated the opportunities which psychologists now have to contribute to their solution. Various institutions, of course, can be expected to perceive different immediate problems in the total situation and to exhibit different emphases in their research efforts. Thus some colleges now appear to be mainly concerned with ways to enrich the scientific curriculum for superior students. This is often difficult, particularly in engineering curricula where required technical courses already occupy nearly all available class hours.

A possible approach is to eliminate some of the more elementary courses from the freshman schedule of outstanding students, thus making room for courses with more advanced or broader content. The present study reports the results of an experimental program of this type at a land-grant college which emphasizes technical curricula.

The program was designed to abbreviate the freshman mathematics sequence for superior engineering students. Normally, engineering students take courses in college algebra and plane trigonometry during their first semester, following these with analytic geometry in the second. It was proposed that a selected group might rather begin with analytics and follow this with calculus in the second semester. This sequence was believed to be more difficult than the normal one. Since the college has an essentially non-restrictive admission policy, the need for an effective selection technique was urgent.

As an initial step, a multiple regression system was developed for the prediction of final grades in analytics. The independent variables were the over-all high school average, total score on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination, scaled scores on both the Cooperative Algebra Test and the Cooperative Plane Trigonometry Test, and the comprehension score on the Diagnostic Reading Test, Survey Section. It was found that only the high school average and the trigonometry test contributed significantly to the variance in the criterion. The final equation was:

$$Y = 0.4403X_1 + 0.8867X_2 - 26.4627$$

where X_1 is the scaled score on the Cooperative Plane Trigonometry Test and X_2 is the over-all high school average in percentage form.

This system yielded a multiple correlation of 0.35 with the criterion in the sample on which it was developed. This is significant at the one per cent level. In a small cross-validation sample the multiple correlation was 0.32, doubtfully significant by the t test. The two sample N's were 238 and 39, respectively. Both samples appeared to be representative of students who took the analytics course, but not of the 962 students who originally specified some branch of engineering as their curriculum. The discrepancy between 962 and the sum of the two samples can be accounted for almost entirely by attrition in engineering curricula.

The predictive system was used to select a limited number of students for the abbreviated mathematics sequence. It was assumed that students with the highest predicted grades in analytics were most suitable for selection. In general, these students were actually selected, but subjective judgments by teaching and administrative personnel were also allowed to operate in the process. No student was considered eligible unless he had successfully completed four semesters of high school algebra and one of high school trigonometry.

In all, there were 68 selected students who later received final grades in analytics. This number approximated the maximum for whom facilities were available. Eight of these students failed the course. It was found that the mean final grade for the selected group was not significantly different from that of an unselected group which followed the normal sequence. However, no selected student who received an A or a B grade in analytics was found to have failed any course in either of his first two semesters. Apparently the students who did well in the more difficult sequence were not unduly penalized in their other academic work.

These findings raised the possibility that only students who were predicted to obtain a final grade of A or B in analytics should be considered for selection. In most grading systems the minimum

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grade in this range, when expressed numerically, is 80. Moreover, a re-examination of the selection process indicated that if the regression system had been used more rigorously, with a cutting score at predicted grade 80, there would have been 75 selected students and possibly only two failures. To raise the cutting score sufficiently to eliminate all failures would have reduced the selected group to 39, an undesirably small number. To lower the cutting score by one point would have brought in 12 additional selectees and possibly doubled the number of failures. Hence it was decided to use the predicted score of 80 as the cutting score.

For the general case where any number of qualified students might be selected, without regard for limited facilities, it was considered desirable to have a system for classifying students as acceptable or unacceptable in the abbreviated sequence. This was accomplished by the discriminant function, with predicted final grade of 80 in analytics as the dividing point in the dichotomous criterion. The below-80 group contained 202 students; the 80 - or - above group contained 75. The independent variables were those found effective in the multiple regression system.

The hypothesis that the two groups are homogeneous was not confirmed. The obtained F value of 26.39 is significant at the one per cent level. Optimal discrimination between these two groups was achieved when the independent variables were weighted as follows:

$$-0.00040754 \text{ for } X_1$$
$$0.00129034 \text{ for } X_2$$

where X_1 and X_2 are defined as before.

The critical value was found to be 0.094508. Students whose sum of weighted scores fell below this value were judged not acceptable in the abbreviated sequence. It thus appears that superior students can be separated from the general freshman engineering population and, if desired, given an enriched curriculum. No study has been made of how the curriculum can best be enriched.

Reference

1. Russell, R. W. Contemporary issues of concern to psychologists. *Amer. Psychologist*, 1958, *13*, 199–216.

NOMINATIONS FOR "HANDICAPPED AMERICAN OF THE YEAR"

Nominations are now being accepted for the President's Trophy presented annually to "The Handicapped American of the Year." This trophy is donated by, and is the handy work of, the students of the Institute for the Crippled and Disabled in New York City. Any physically disabled American citizen is eligible for nomination as "The Handicapped American of the Year," regardless of sex, race, age, creed, or formal education. Nominations should be submitted to the Awards Committee prior to February 1, 1961. For rules and procedures, inquiries should be sent to the President's Committee on Employment of the Physically Handicapped, Washington 25, D. C.

DAVID V. TIEDEMAN, EDITOR
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Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale

REVIEWED by JULIAN C. STANLEY

STANFORD-BINET INTELLIGENCE SCALE. Ages two and over. 1916–1960; revision of *Revised Stanford-Binet Scale*, 1937. Individual. Form L-M, 1960; manual, 1960. *Prices:* \$36.00 per set of test materials; \$5.00 per 35 record booklets; \$2.40 per 35 record forms; postage extra. *Time:* 30–90 minutes. Lewis Terman & Maud A. Merrill, with revised IQ tables by Samuel R. Pinneau, Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street, Boston 7, Massachusetts.

THE AUTHORS offer the following explanation of the difference between the new Form L-M of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale and its predecessors, Forms L and M:

"The Stanford Revision in 1960 retains the main characteristics of scales of the Binet type. It is an age scale making use of age standards of performance. It undertakes to measure intelligence regarded as general mental adaptability. The 1960 scale incorporates in a single form, designated as the L-M Form, the best subtests from the 1937 scales. The selection of subtests to be included in the 1960 scale was based on records of tests administered during the five-year period from 1950 to 1954. The main assessment group for evaluating the subtests consisted of 4,498 subjects aged two and one-half to 18 years. Changes in difficulty of subtests were determined by comparing the per cents passing the individual tests in the 1950's with the per cents passing in the 1930's constituting the original standardization group. Criteria for selection of test items were: (1) increase in per cent passing with age (or mental age); and (2) validity determined by biserial correlation of item with total score. Changes consisted in the elimination or relocation of tests which have been found to have changed significantly in difficulty since the original standardization; the elimination or substitution of tests which are no longer suitable by reason of cultural changes; further clarification of ambiguities of scoring principles and test administration; and the correction of structural inadequacies of the 1937 scale, first by introducing adjustments to make the average mental age that the scale gives more nearly equal to the average chronological age at each age level and second, by providing revised and extended IQ tables that incorporate built-in adjustments for atypical variability of IQ's at certain age levels so that the standard score IQ's provided are comparable at all age levels" (Manual, pp. 39–40).

Characteristics of the new L-M Form were inferred from adjusted statistics of items adapted from the L and M forms, rather than by direct tryout of Form L-M itself. This may have some effect, perhaps small, upon biserial *r*'s, means, standard deviations, and the like.

Constructing a well standardized age scale of intelligence is truly a formidable undertaking, and "retreading" an old one (published in 1937) is no chore for the fainthearted. We are indebted to the late Pro-

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fessor Terman and to his collaborators on the 1937 and 1960 versions—especially Professors Maud Merrill and Quinn McNemar for their great zeal, energy, patience, and skill in combining laboratory standards of exactitude with extensive statistical verification. Along with Pinneau, who constructed the new standard-score IQ tables, they have elevated the "cut and trying" of age scaling to a high art and infused into it considerable science.

We must ponder seriously, however, whether it is any longer worthwhile to work this hard preserving the cumulated-months mental age, only to fly to standard-score IQ tables (desired mean at each age level 100, standard deviation 16). Devising point scales seems much more straightforward, and it is possible to supplement standard scores and percentile ranks with grade equivalents and "point mental ages." Practically everyone, including Terman and Merrill, seems to have given up the MA/CA ratio-type IQ, thereby removing one of the chief reasons for having intelligence scales scored on the basis of months of mental age.

A large number of psychologists—school and otherwise—will be grateful for this improved version of their favorite standardized interviewing technique, as it might be called. Gone are obsolescent items that puzzled today's children. (But the American flag still has only 48 stars!) Put together in one neat package are the best items from Forms L and M, even more heavily weighted with a general intellectual factor ("manipulation of symbols"?) than before because "Though items with low first factor loadings were not entirely eliminated, all items which are highly saturated with the general factor are included" (p. 35). This resulted, for example, in reducing the percentage of memory items at the adult levels (AA through SAIII) from 23 in the 1937 scales to $12^1/_2$.

"Evidence that this Form measures the same intellective functions at all parts of the scale is better for the intermediate and upper age levels than for the preschool levels where few changes have been made and our population samples are less good" (p. 35).

Experienced users of the 1937 Stanford-Binet will feel at home with the improved Guide for Administering and Scoring (pp. 45–341 of the book) and the attractive kit. Nevertheless, the changes call for some advance study that may not be obvious at first. Particularly, one should read pages 5–40 carefully for background concerning the amalgamation of Forms L and M, giving special attention to the small number of geographical areas used for item selection and revision (pp. 21–23).

The three prior Stanford-Binet books still belong in the libraries of serious students of intelligence: Terman's *The Measurement of Intelligence* (1916), Terman and Merrill's *Measuring Intelligence* (1937), and McNemar's *The Revision of the Stanford-Binet Scale* (1942). All were published by Houghton Mifflin, also, exhibiting truly remarkable continuity over the 44-year period.

Terman and Merrill modestly justify offering only one form by stating that "There is, in 1960, less need for alternative forms of equivalent difficulty than there was in 1937 when no other well constructed individual tests were available for the clinician" (p. 20). Forms L and M will remain available for research purposes, however.

This reviewer concurs with their "reasonable assurance to test users that the third Revision of the Stanford-Binet Scales can be relied upon to perform even more dependably the functions that have come to be expected of them" (p. v). The revision is by no means a complete restandardization, but it does seem to be a distinct improvement in several respects.

Letters

from our readers

A Bouquet

To the Editor:

May I congratulate the *Journal* for following (Editor's note) "a more devious or perhaps more direct route—through the heart to the head" and publishing Neil Lamper's lyrically piercing "Listen to the Lambs" in the April issue.

I find another indictment of education's anxiety in the Editor's continuing note—"quite unlike our usual presentations." I would not disparage the *Journal's* usual and useful, exciting presentations of research reports and Association news; this is necessary and good. But, on the other hand, I deplore a certain implication that in our research oriented world only facts objectively and conventionally chronicled are reliable and, hence, publishable sources of truth.

Mr. Lamper has been really digging the lambs as well as recording the number and condition of their bleats. Thanks to him and the *Journal* there must still be hope for education—through the heart.

RUTH NEAL
University of Florida
Gainesville, Florida

On a Career in Medicine

To the Editor:

I wish to share the enclosed excerpt with my colleagues. Permission to reprint has been granted.

The letter was brought into my class in Principles and Practices of Guidance for discussion in relation to our course work.

The writer is Dr. Nathaniel Bernstein, Psychiatrist, Bureau of Child Guidance, Department of Education, City of New York, and was written to a young friend who happens also to be the son of an old friend.

". . . . My judgment is based upon a few simple facts. Firstly, you indicated that your temperament was pretty much in harmony with the study of natural sciences. Secondly, from a few scattered bits of information that have come my way, there can be no doubt that you have the grey matter and the ethical values that the profession demands. Lastly, (and this is the real pitch of my thesis) there are so many types of medical practice that practically every facet of creative expression is available to a doctor, and if you could not 'find yourself' in one of them, you might as well try to gain residence on a hunk of real estate called Mars.

"And here's how. If a doctor has a flare for teaching or writing, the fields are wide open. If there's a bit of an artist in him, plastic surgery rings a bell. If he likes to debate he can work in the courts and make a lawyer look silly by setting forth the medical aspects of his patient's legal claims; if he's skilled with his hands there's always surgery; and if he's a bit of a carpenter to boot he can become an orthopedic surgeon; if he likes to travel he can get jobs on luxury liners; if a primitive way of life suits his tastes he can do some public health work with the Eskimos in Alaska or on some Indian reservation; if he likes administration he can run a hospital or try to do what your mother does; if he's an inveterate Peeping Tom he can work with x-rays or become a gynecologist; if he looks good in a uniform and is a stickler for convention, ritual, and discipline the Armed Forces might be his choice; if he happens to like people and can use his personality as a tool for helping the mixed-up ones, how about psychiatry? Then again, if he's a confirmed recluse he can surround himself with test tubes and microscopes and follow the field of pathology, embryology, or bacteriology; if he's a pioneer in spirit, that's why researchers were born; if he wants to become a pillar of the community, assimilated with its social life with the 'family ideal' in mind, it's hard to beat general practice.

"Now I can go on and on—you name it and the A.M.A. has it—teaching, writing, travel, administration, art, oratory, debate, national defense, research, statistics, high-level photography—these and many, many more are done toward the end of alleviating human suffering and making this a much more comfortable world to live in . . . ."

There is a postscript to the letter, which I think should be part of the record:

"P.S. And with M.D. plates you can park your car darned near anywhere."

To which I can only add, NOW he tells me.

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The Need for Negative Criticism

To the Editor:

A recent trend in guidance-orientated conferences which forces counselor participants to contribute only positive statements and bars, in a discussion, even remotely negative comments reminds me of a

retort made by T. S. Eliot, "If we all came to talk alike there would no longer be any point in our not writing alike."

Guidance conferences and symposiums gagging speakers in this manner will do much to paralyze forward motion and reduce counselors to smiling "yes-men" who are too confused to disagree. At a time when we need "angry young men" and professional autonomy, such a trend as this can only produce professional obsolescence. As a teacher and future counselor, I feel a too strong accent on positive thinking paralyzes an association.

Few organizations, as evidence to back up my statement, improved by hobbling the skeptic or the individualist. The medical profession, for example, shares its history with men who weren't cowed into positive contributions only. Men like Pasteur thought negatively and criticized the *Academie Francaise* for resisting new ideas. Over a hundred years ago in Budapest, Semmelweis lost his mind and his life proving to the medical hierarchy that doctors must wash their hands after treating patients. He gained immense dislike by his critical attitude but stamped out childbirth, or puerperal, fever and elevated his profession to today's high level.

We find ready examples in other professions. The American Bar Association evolved in 1878 because a few lawyers saw the need for professional solidarity and aggrandizement. Abraham Lincoln might have "read" for the law in his modest hometown office, but this is a rarity today because of severer requirements and more erudite qualifications. Qualifications put forth by men who were not afraid to criticize the *status quo*, who were not afraid to look at the negative side of the Association's development. In architecture, Frank Lloyd Wright, aided by concurrent technical advancements, improved his profession's status by individual, non-conforming effort. In mechanical engineering, to make my point even more basic, wasn't the automatic steam valve "invented" by a lazy boy who realized it was too much work to open each one of the valves by hand? One of Edison's inventions, the automatic telegraph repeater, resulted because he desired less work. He hooked up his innovation and produced perfect copy but was fired by the telegraph station manager when caught. Benjamin Franklin produced many improvements that were also prompted by his admitted love of ease, a negative feeling. All of these had to first, think negatively (and see a wrong) and, second, have the opportunity to make needed improvements.

Any criticism of positive thinking logically brings up a warning against natural negative tendencies present in everyday counseling. Parents, teachers, and administrators are often outspoken in criticism of misinterpreted guidance practices. An excess of this is frustrating, overwhelming, and, in a sense, destructive. This letter side-steps the problem of daily practice and aims at restrictions placed upon guidance conferences, association meetings, and other counselor-counselor group meetings. Its purpose is to salvo an associational trend which, it is felt, reduces counselor effectiveness.

Guidance personnel and those interested in guidance counseling, when making suggestions in the field, must have the right to be negative. I do not propound a rash of negation for its own sake, far from it; but I do hold that we will never reach Elysian fields or come close to the "Bower of Bliss" unless we check this positive-contributions-only trend and give the rebel the right to reject. We have deprived ourselves too long and quailed at the challenge of vigorous discussion. Let's stamp out this positivistic tumor which threatens to turn us into timid grovelers and raise counseling to its deserved Olympian heights.

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Books Reviewed

reviews of recent publications . . . by various contributors

VOCATIONAL PLANNING FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS: A SEQUENTIAL PROJECT METHOD, by Henry Borow & Robert V. Lindsey. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1959. v + 186 pp. $2.95.

THIS IS a combined text and workbook for college courses in educational and vocational planning and for college orientation courses. Through a series of projects the student is guided into a variety of experiences which require him to study himself and the world of work and to attempt a synthesis of these two elements. From the first project, which calls for some thinking about his purposes in college, to the last one, which deals with job application letters, the student is encouraged to become actively involved in the learning process.

Although the projects and much of the textual material focus on matching of the person and the occupation, it is made clear from the start that vocational counseling is more than just matching. There are repeated suggestions, for example, that the student discuss matters with his counselor, and it is assumed that individual counseling and group guidance are integral parts of the total instructional process. Specifically, Chapter 4, "Preparing for Counseling," gives the client-to-be some ideas as to what to expect of counseling and what he should be ready to do as a counselee. The kind of counseling process which is described is an eclectic one which includes appraisal data and vocational information as necessary but the elements used seem limited. Stress is placed on the client's responsibilities for deciding which problems he will bring to the interview and for making the ultimate decisions and plans regarding his future activities.

While the D.O.T. is used for the reader's introduction to the world of work, the newer Functional Occupational Classification Structure of the USES is used as a framework for some of the later self-analysis. In Project D, for instance, as part of an extensive autobiographical study, the student reports his scores on the GATB and rates himself on the 10 factor interest scale which is used in the FOCS.

A good deal of useful material has been brought together for the convenience of both student and instructor, such as the reproduction of a table from the manual for the *Kuder Preference Record* which classifies occupations according to the Kuder scales which seem to be appropriate. Similarly, data from the *Estimates of Worker Trait Requirements for 4,000 Jobs* are given for 260 of the higher level occupations, those which are most likely to be of interest to college students. Parts of Hoppock's *Outline for the Study of an Occupation* were adapted for Projects F and G, which are surveys of two occupations to which the student has narrowed his exploration by means of the earlier projects.

There is little attempt to include specific information about particular occupations, except for the material mentioned previously. Instead, reference is made to published and other sources of information, and the student is given detailed instructions for using interviews in particular for the purpose of studying occupations.

Physically the book is designed for work use: it is paper-bound, pages are 8 -by -11 inches, and all are perforated for easy removal and punched for three-hole binders.

Although psychologically sound, the text and project materials are somewhat shallow with regard to psycho-social aspects of work, and there is not much reflection of some of the more recent thinking about vocational development. For example, some of the questionnaires tend to reflect the overemphasis in occupational literature on the more concrete aspects of work, such as salaries, physical conditions, educational and experience requirements, etc. Not nearly enough attention is given to some of the less tangible factors, such as the effects of one's occupations on his social status and his way of living in general. Nor is there adequate recognition of some of the more subtle

realities of vocational development, such as parent-child conflicts regarding goals, causes of unrealistic level of aspiration, etc.

The student who reads this material and fills in the questionnaires thoughtfully should gain increased self-awareness and more soundly based career plans. For the instructor who prefers a highly structured, logical approach to the vocational planning process, this book should be a useful instructional aid.—LEO GOLDMAN, *Associate Professor of Education, Brooklyn College.*

WHICH COLLEGE FOR YOU?, by Edward Hodnett. New York: Harper & Bros., 1960. 115 pp. $2.95.

COMPACT, concise, and complete describe the characteristics of this small book on choosing a college. Written for the teenager, the book presents a fair and positive outline of factors involved in making a sound selection of a college. This is no gimmick with an easy solution to the teenager's and his parent's job of selecting a college. "Choosing a college is a major decision in your life" (p. 1) sets the tone of the book.

Hodnett has divided the book into four sections: (I) goals; (II) self-analysis; (III) research; and (IV) making the decision. In urging the student to examine his goals in seeking a college education, the author displays his sound guidance footing in stating, "yet overstressing vocational goals leads to unsatisfactory college choices more often than any other cause except lack of thought" (p. 13). In the section on "Self-Analysis," factors of personality, interest, and scholarship are discussed. "Research" includes pointers for a student analysis of the various parts which go together to make a great college or university, *e.g.*, accreditation, entrance requirements, faculty accomplishments. Section IV, "Making a Decision," is a pulling together of the facts of the first three sections into an active program. The book concludes with a helpful action program chart for the students.

"By all means, your first action should be to talk your whole problem over with your

school counselors" (p. 50) is a guidance thread running throughout the book. The frank realistic pin-pointing of what is involved in a choice of a college is refreshing to this reviewer. Perhaps unnoticed by the student will be the error in explaining the IQ needed for success in college as "A percentile of 110 is generally considered minimum for satisfactory college work" (p. 104). However, this book should prove useful in educational guidance, both in counseling and group sessions of students on "Which College for You?"—HERMAN J. PETERS, *Professor of Education, The Ohio State University.*

GUIDANCE IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION, by Roy De Verl Willey. Revised Edition. New York: Harper & Bros., 1960. xiii + 462 pp. $6.00.

WILLEY'S revision of his 1952 book is 200 pages shorter than the original and is directed more toward teaching and guidance practices than toward the human development information included in the original work. The bibliography has been brought up to date throughout the book.

Willey defines guidance as environmental control to allow for self-direction, self-control, and self-appraisal. The purpose of guidance, as he sees it, is to promote the growth of socially desirable, happy, and wholesome personalities. For Willey, elementary guidance and good teaching are virtually synonymous.

Although the book is essentially concerned with the individual child, the orientation is not perceptual. The author describes some typical elementary programs and offers many suggestions for forms and procedures for data gathering and diagnosing about the individual child. The book is more diagnostic than therapeutic.

In the author's concern for environmental control, there are many sections attacking administrative practices that negatively affect the problems of mental health, such as over-crowding, departmentalization, the graded school itself, and the lack of provisions for individual differences. For exam-

ple, the chapter on guidance in groups spends much more time discussing school organization rather than the dynamics of group operation for the classroom teacher. The book contains many statements of Willey's philosophy of education, most of which this reviewer found to be interesting and on the frontier of educational practice.

Willey's point of view on the use of projective and expressive techniques by the classroom teacher will be viewed by many guidance workers as highly controversial. He believes that the teacher can use such techniques (excluding Rorschach and T AT). The section on role playing is good, but the discussion of the use of painting, drawing, and open-ended techniques, such as sentence completion and story completion, seems weak. He does not stress sufficiently the caution which must be observed and does not give the teacher enough practical help in using these within the limits of his competence. It is almost as though the teacher is encouraged to use these without sufficient training or sufficient recognition of the difficulties involved. On the other hand, Willey is critical of most standardized testing procedures. One wishes he had been as cautious in his interpretation of projective devices as he justifiably is in his warning about the utility of a single IQ score.

The author takes an essentially "directive" counseling position in his discussion of guidance as a learning process. He stresses heavily the importance of case histories and other external diagnostic information. For example, he says "The most thorough and complete method of attack on deficiencies in the communicative skills is to analyze the complete case history of the child, including results of standardized tests, family history, anecdotal records and so on" (p. 255).

There is an interesting discussion of intergroup and inter-cultural education as a phase of guidance, an area often overlooked.

One chapter deals with the teaching of exceptional children. It is too much to cover in the space allotted but he does give at least a point of view and some suggestions for teachers. It might have been better to make a more general discussion rather than to have a paragraph or so on each type of exceptionality. One cannot, as Willey attempts, consider schizophrenia in childhood in a page and a quarter.

His discussion of evaluation and research in guidance essentially makes one important point: that children should participate in the evaluative process in school. Most of his chapter on evaluation and research, unfortunately, is devoted to evaluation of guidance rather than to research in guidance and counseling.

On the whole, Willey's book should prove useful to those seeking an overview of guidance in the elementary school. This reviewer thoroughly endorses his basic position that the teacher is at the heart of the elementary guidance program and that her first step is understanding the child. Its usefulness as a text or reference, therefore, is not confined to guidance courses but can be useful in the general preparation of elementary teachers.—IRA J. GORDON, *Associate Professor of Education, University of Florida.*

MENTAL HEALTH MANPOWER TRENDS, by George W. Albee. New York: Basic Books, 1959. xliii + 361 pp. $6.75.

THIS VOLUME is the third of a series of 10 monographs on various topics sponsored by the Joint Commission on Mental Health and Illness. It is a facts-and-figures examination of the problems of mental health manpower, but it is facts-and-figures with a difference. The difference is author Albee, a man with a flair for straightforward expression. The writing is not colorful, of course, certainly not in a book of this sort; but it is clean and clear as an infant's conscience.

The first of the 10 chapters deals with the current mental health manpower situation and the nature and number of the personnel shortages. Then, the prospects for reducing the shortages in various fields such as psychiatry, medicine, psychology, social work, nursing, etc., are discussed with large amounts of data. Finally, the problem of educating mental health workers is considered, and the implications of the vast array of evidence presented earlier are pondered in terms of our probable future needs. The outlook is glum. We are woefully short of trained mental health personnel now, but all indications are that the shortage will get worse. It will get worse although our state

and national leaders in every field from industry and government, from the military and the classroom, are fully aware of the problem and want to do something about it. But despite many plans and good intentions, what can they *really* do in a society where wealth is worshipped, and a good plumber can often amass more wealth than a good psychiatrist, psychologist, or social worker. As a nation, we deeply respect material things like Cadillacs and air conditioners, and to get them, it is not necessary to go through the masochistic self-flagellation of graduate education. Indeed, the youth of today will increase the likelihood of getting a mink-draped wife and a house with swimming pool if he does not seek post-graduate professional training. Some proposals have urged that personnel of less thorough training be developed by means of special, short-term, mental health worker educational programs. Other proposals have centered on a hoped-for research break-through which would develop a vaccine or drug treating neuropsychiatric patients. The proposed special mental health workers, unfortunately, would have to be drawn from the same manpower pool as the present, fully-trained professional workers, and the serum for schizophrenics is still a chimera, not yet real, not yet grasped although a continuing possibility.

For a society which makes such profound obeisance to money, there is something absurd in our national myopia concerning mental illness and what it costs. Some of our wealthiest states spend one-third of their total operating budgets for the care of their citizens in state mental hospitals and the total direct and indirect cost of mental illness is billions of dollars per year nationally. This, of course, is not to say that nothing is being done about this fantastically expensive problem. Funds for mental health research have increased enormously during the past decade to the point where we now devote about 20 million dollars a year for this purpose. We also spend annually 100 million on agricultural research and 200 million on medical research. Enough said.

Albee does a neat job of getting behind the data by slicing through the fat which disguises the figures. For example, accord-

ing to one study, of every 1,000 non-federal positions available in public mental hospitals only 68 were unfilled. However, 23.4 per cent of the positions for psychiatrists and a similar percentage for psychologists were vacant, thereby demonstrating where the real shortage is. The same sort of thing applies to the ratio of total psychiatrists to the general U. S. population. Ratios for the nation are fine, Albee observes, but do not take into account such lopsided distributions as Beverly Hills which has about the same number of psychiatrists as the entire city of Los Angeles.

Mental Health Manpower Trends is a good job well done. It offers a careful analysis of the problem buttressed by convincing data. For those who want further information, the last 77 pages of the book are statistical tables of salaries, admissions, patient populations, and many similar items. For those who want an overview, an introductory but meaty statement by the Joint Commission staff offers an excellent highlights coverage of the entire volume. While the book is good, the index is a bit sloppy. Seymour Vestermark, for example, is listed while Erasmus L. Hoch on the facing page is ignored. But if the index is incomplete, the body of the book is not. Albee is able and his book proves it.—IRWIN A. BERG, *Chairman and Professor, Department of Psychology, Louisiana State University.*

INNER CONFLICT AND DEFENSE, by Daniel R. Miller & Guy E. Swanson. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1960. 452 pp. $6.95.

INNER CONFLICT AND DEFENSE is a collaborative volume which had its origins in a seminar conducted at the University of Michigan by the psychologist and the sociologist who are the two senior authors. A series of experimental investigations to test the theory developed were then pursued by a group of graduate students. Their findings provided much of the empirical content of the book. The book is thus a report of an attempt to extend psychoanalytic principles by the controlled techniques of the social scientist.

A major aim of the research was to determine the characteristic responses to inner conflict. The authors also sought to identify those aspects of an individual's experience that lead him to favor one particular solution to conflict rather than another. Social class and methods of child rearing were investigated as two major sources of such experience. The authors chose to concentrate on two types of conflict: between aggressive and moral needs, and between ambition and fear of failure. In order to analyze the origins of different substitutive behaviors resulting from conflict, three components were taken into account. These were the nature of the moral standards violated, the mechanisms of defense, and the differences in expressive style.

The defense mechanisms were grouped into two broad families on the basis of such criteria as degree of skill involved, degree of distortion entailed, generality, and extent to which social difficulties are created. In general it was hypothesized and later found that the types of defenses used would be related to the social class and type of rearing received by the person as a child.

In broad outline, the approach taken by the authors is to present the problem in detail, state their expectations or hypotheses, and then proceed to a detailed delineation of research findings. Statistical tables and further information on selection of subjects and tests used are offered in a series of appendices.

Inner Conflict and Defense represents a distinct contribution to the field. It is a fascinating account of an area that has been rarely explored by a controlled experimental technique. It can be equally recommended to guidance workers, clinicians, and researchers. It represents a most fruitful integration of sociological and psychological concepts and approaches. As the authors surmise, their findings will undoubtedly instigate a long series of experimental investigations.—MAURICE LORR, *Chief, Neuropsychiatric Research Laboratory, Veterans Benefits Office, Washington, D.C.*

THE EIGHTH GENERATION CULTURES AND PERSONALITIES OF NEW ORLEANS NEGROES, by John H. Rohrer & Merno S. Edmonson (Eds.). New York: Harper & Bros., 1960. 346 pp. $6.00.

THIS BOOK, a follow-up study of the *Children of Bondage* by Allison Davis and

John Dollard, examines the significance of early childhood experience in the social and psychological integration of individuals. The authors did not set out to determine, whether, after approximately 20 years, the "Children of Bondage" were perpetuating in the relations with their own children the methods by which they themselves had been trained. In making the study, the writers made use of the Davis' and Dollard's ideas, as well as their complete file of data, including interview records. Of the 107 cases comprising the Allison and Davis investigation, 90 were located, and 47 of the 90 were interviewed. Then 10 men and 10 women of the later group (47) were selected for intensive study and this group formed the bases of the research. The authors hold that these 20 cases are a "scientifically representative sample of a population of 200,000." There is serious doubt as to whether such an assumption can be substantiated. This is one of the major weaknesses of the research.

The introductory chapter presents in a methodical manner the design of the investigation, the methods employed in collecting the information, and the professional bias of the personnel who gathered and analyzed the data. The two succeeding chapters are devoted to a lengthy and graphic description of the complex organizational structure of the community life of the contemporary New Orleans Negro with specific attention given the "race-caste" levels on which life is integrated—ethically for the Creoles, classwise for the middle and lower classes, and occupationally for the underworld and entertainment world. A feeble and meagerly documented attempt is then made to answer the question: How does the individual relate himself psychologically to the intricate and complex traditions of the society of which he is a part or to specific symbols of it?" After a brief re-analysis of the fluid cultural and dialectial structure of New Orleans, the authors conclude that "most individuals appear to relate themselves primarily to one cultural nucleus—to one social world, and that this relationship becomes a pattern of cultural identification, institutionalized in family life and in the manner of training children.

The primary role identification of the 20 subjects are categorized as Middle Class, Matriarchy, Gang, Family, and Marginal. The next five chapters are devoted to detailed case studies and a psycho-socio-cultural interpretation of the five aforementioned subcultural groups. While the authors have treated their data intensively, the weaknesses of the study (procedures used in the selection of the sample and the validity of the psychological tests employed —TAT, Machover, Draw-a-Figure, Rorscharch, and Wechsler-Bellevue) and the inability of the interviewers to establish rapport with elusive and evasive subjects make it difficult to justify the conclusion that the individuals' intrapsychic techniques for maintaining ego integrity are established firmly enough by adolescence to make possible some measure of accurate prediction.

However, in spite of these difficulties, the reader will find the book to be most informative in providing certain pertinent data about the culture of New Orleans and the Negro in particular not to be found elsewhere.—W. L. Cash, Jr., *Director, Counseling Center, Prairie View A & M College.*

Fellowships in the Arts and Sciences, 1960–1961, by Virginia Bosch Potter. Third Edition. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1959. 220 pp. $3.75.

It is a pleasure to review a revised edition of a book previously reviewed favorably and to find that some of the changes suggested by the reviewer have been carried out.

The new edition of *Fellowships in the Arts and Sciences* is the last to be written by Virginia Bosch Potter. The new edition runs 25 pages longer than the first edition, with added, helpful facts and figures. The book is divided into seven chapters in similar manner to the previous edition:

Chapter 1—To the Fellowship Applicant
Chapter 2—Predoctoral Fellowships
Chapter 3—Postdoctoral Fellowships
Chapter 4—Senior, Faculty, or Special Awards
Chapter 5—Study Abroad
Chapter 6—Summer Study
Chapter 7—Loans

The book is well written and for the most part contains up-to-date and current information. Interestingly enough, some of the

information was practically out-dated as soon as it reached print. For example, the Jessie Smith Noyes Foundation no longer administers their fund. They have given available scholarship monies to various colleges for administration.

The book certainly looks better physically and continues to be an easy-to-read book with a clear writing style.

The bibliography has been improved, but not enough. Rich's book, *American Foundations and Their Fields,* is still not listed, although the American Foundations' newsletter is.

There are still a number of fellowships available that have not been included in this book.

It is suggested that various magazines which constantly list various fellowships in their publications might have been mentioned in the bibliography. Other professional articles and pamphlets on student aid may well have been included.

It is also suggested that samples of various fellowship forms should be presented in the book. It would certainly discourage some from applying and encourage others. At any event, it will save a good deal of time and money for the many funds that now send out application forms that are never acknowledged.

The weakest chapter in this reviewer's opinion is that on educational loans. There is a great deal of information available particularly from various banks, colleges, and private funds that have had long experience with loans, particularly at the graduate level. In this connection more use of local resources by applicants may well have been stressed.

The reviewer is pleased to repeat that for the candidate who needs financial help in order to further his graduate training and research, as well as for counseling psychologists, counselors, and librarians, this new edition is recommended without reservation as a needed addition to resource material on student aid.—S. NORMAN FEINGOLD, *National Director, B'nai B'rith Vocational Service, Washington, D. C.*

TOWER: TESTING, ORIENTATION AND WORK EVALUATION IN REHABILITATION. New York: The Institute for Crippled and Disabled, 1959. 131 pp. $4.95.

IN RECENT YEARS, the use of work samples in the vocational evaluation of the disabled has commanded widespread interest. One of the more ambitious efforts to date is reported in this book. The title, TOWER, is the word symbol formed by the initial letters of substantive words in the sub-title. There are 13 broad occupational areas included in the work samples: clerical, drafting, drawing, electronics assembly, jewelry manufacturing, leather goods, lettering, mail clerk, optical mechanics, receptionist, sewing machine operator, welding, and workshop assembly. These areas were selected because they are training courses given at the Institute for Crippled and Disabled and are claimed to represent more frequent job placements for the disabled in the community.

The materials have been developed by many people who were employed in the vocational counseling and work evaluation unit at the Institute. After several different approaches were tried to assist the disabled to choose suitable and realistic vocations, the system of work samples was evolved as a part of the evaluative program. The TOWER SYSTEM includes: (1) the manual, the subject of this book review; (2) the Evaluator's Manual; (3) the file cabinet of all needed materials. The method of development of the work samples is described in the book so that modifications and additions might be made in keeping with the job opportunities in any other community served by a work evaluation unit.

On page 61, the book's purpose is said to be "...a general discussion of the theory, development, purpose and application of vocational evaluation, reality testing, work samples, and the TOWER SYSTEM. It is designed to provide a base for understanding and useful background to individuals and organizations who are using or studying the TOWER SYSTEM." The reviewer might aptly note that the latter sentence is more modest and true to reality, while the former sentence is too broad, except if one is content with a superficial discussion of the "...theory of vocational evaluation, reality testing, work samples. . . ." The reviewer purposely quotes these two sentences on the purpose of the book because they are minuscule examples of the tone and scope of the book.

On the one hand, the work samples ap-

pear to be promising as techniques useful with disabled people who require careful and prolonged evaluation. The work samples, as currently developed, may serve as materials in a simulated work laboratory which permits extended observation of the person. The observations may add additional information on which to base a sound vocational choice. On the other hand, the claims made for the work samples are not fully substantiated. It is said that the work samples may produce data which applies to broad occupational groups. The team approach described in the book is well conceived but the treatment is simple and uncritical. There is evidence of a careful attempt to obtain consistent and objective scoring with the use of special scoring devices and guides.

The need for a scientific evaluation of the work samples is apparent. The Institute is aware of this shortcoming and is now engaged in such research. Of the 131 pages, only one, page 59, offers evidence of validation. There are two elementary tables, the second of which does not state the number on which the percentages are based, except in the indefinite form, thus, "a further analysis of those [sic]. . . ." The descriptive paragraph preceding the tables states that "402 were referred for training," but the table shows percentages for those "Following Training." For example, we are not told how many of those who began training, with the help of the work samples, went on to completion. This thin evaluation is glossed over with a salesmanship tone. Despite these observations, the effort in developing work samples merits the attention of counselors in rehabilitation and other settings where unusual problems are encountered in helping people to arrive at sound vocational decisions.—Salvatore G. DiMichael, *Regional Representative, U. S. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation.*

Publications . . . in brief

LYLE D. SCHMIDT

Liberal Arts and Professional Curricula

Attitudes of Liberal Arts Faculty Members Toward Liberal and Professional Education, P. L. Dressel & Margaret F. Lorimer, 1960. Institute of Higher Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. 55 pp. $1.75.

This report is a companion piece to a study published by the Institute of Higher Education on *The Liberal Arts as Viewed by Faculty Members in Professional Schools,* previously reviewed in this column. The present study attempts to sample the views of liberal arts faculty members regarding the purpose of liberal education today; the extent to which liberal arts courses should be required in technical and professional programs; and the nature and pattern of such requirements. The data came from a 50-item inventory distributed by the deans of six universities, two state colleges, and nine small liberal arts colleges to the liberal arts faculty of these institutions. The forms were completed anonymously, and about half of the 2,500 sent to the deans were returned. A percentage-type analysis was made of the data.

The inventory was divided into three parts. Part I sought to find the degree to which faculty members favored the liberal arts. As might be expected, the responses indicated strong conviction that liberal arts courses are important to all students, should definitely be a part of professional curricula, and that a liberal education is not likely to be acquired incidentally or through professional education. However, many respondents doubted that professional curricula should pre-require liberal arts or that more time be given to liberal arts if it meant lengthening the period of study for a professional degree.

Part II concerned the distribution of requirements for a liberal arts degree. It was indicated that the arts degree should have from 36 to 50 per cent of the credit hours devoted to breadth requirements spread over four years but gradually decreased each year; from 26 to 35 per cent devoted to a major, defined as depth in a discipline and possibly as a step toward a vocation; and from 11 to 25 per cent devoted to professional courses.

Part III sampled attitudes toward the proportion, nature, and pattern of liberal arts courses in eight professional degree programs (agriculture, business, engineering, home economics, journalism, music, nursing, and pharmacy). So many respondents withheld opinion on this part that the data were inconclusive. Those who did respond favored highest requirements for journalism but varied widely on the others. In general, opinion favored a few broad liberal arts courses for the professional programs or a common core of these courses spread over four years, much like the opinion on the arts degree.

For *Journal* readers, some of the written reactions made by roughly one-third of the respondents may be of special interest. Among the many items, a number of comments were made on the doubtful effectiveness, but significant importance, of faculty advising and the problem of giving liberal arts subjects a perspective and relationship to life. More college people than student personnel workers are aware of the need for student consultations and counseling services.

Overall, the report indicates a fairly close agreement between liberal arts and professional faculties on the place of liberal arts in professional curricula. It presents data of which readers in higher education, particularly, need to be aware.

Free Films for Educators

Educators Guide to Free Films, Mary F. Horkheimer & J. W. Diffor (Eds.), 20th edition, 1960. Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin. 639 pp. $9.00.

Individuals using films for classroom or other presentations might be profitably interested in this guide to films available rental-free. The "freeness" is due, of course, to the fact that the films are sponsored by some industry, organization, agency, etc. This sometimes means there is a public relations slant in the film, but nonetheless the Guide provides some fine audio-visual aids without cost.

As in the past, this guide supersedes the previous editions for administrative and ordering purposes. Over 500 titles have been deleted because they are no longer available, and more new ones than that added, giving the guide a total listing of 4,276 films. John G. Fowlkes has also prepared an article new to this edition, titled "Learning and Living in the World of Science," which deals with implications of the social and science areas of the curriculum as they may influence basic educational policies.

Usual features of the *Guide* include alphabetical listings by general curriculum areas; short descriptions, including running time, date, distributor, etc.; subject and title indices; a source and availability index; and directions and a sample letter for ordering the films.

Hints on Taking Tests

How to Pass Employment Tests, Arthur Liebers, 1959. Arco Publishing Company, Inc. New York, N. Y. 222 pp. $3.50.

The purpose of this publication seems to be to acquaint readers with various types of tests used in employing or promoting people in industry, and the qualities or characteristics these tests are intended

to measure so that they might have an advantage when their time comes to be tested. After a brief introductory discussion of types of examinations, timing of tests, test research, and what the tests mean, 35 pages of sample test questions are presented. Then a section titled "The Man is Watching You!" points out how test administrators usually observe the test taker and lists various testing room behaviors and the kinds of interpretations that might be made of them. This is followed by a discussion of interview forms and how to pass salesmanship tests. About the latter the author says ". . . In answering a test of this type it is important to be consistent. Keeping in mind that a salesman should be an extrovert, should like people and activities which involve other people, and shouldn't be too intellectual, will steer you on a safe course through a test of this kind" (p. 69). The material on pages 71 through 98 is reprinted from W. H. Whyte's *The Organization Man* and contains Whyte's remarks on "How Good an Organization Man Are You," "The Tests of Conformity," and "How to Cheat on Personality Tests." The last half of the book contains study material and more practice questions for employment tests. In the study materials are some principles of supervision, basic vocabulary principles, and how best to prepare for and what to be watchful for on tests (read directions carefully, get a good night's sleep, etc.).

In examining material of this type, one may view it from different perspectives: on the one hand, it may well give an individual an advantage on certain tests but if the tests are valid and employed properly, the persons selected will be expected to fulfill certain expectancies which no test-taking knowledge will develop. Also, everyone should have equal opportunity for knowing what to expect on tests as well as understanding test marking procedures, but how far should one go in indicating attitudes to try to convey and personality types to assume in answering tests.

In general, many *Journal* readers may find themselves with some feelings of skepticism and reservation as to the actual contribution of various "How to . . ." publications. In any case, one might ponder the effects such publications may work on present validities, reliabilities, and predictabilities.

College Enrollment Report

Opening (Fall) Enrollment in Higher Education, 1959: Analytic Report, Edith M. Huddleston, 1960, Circular No. 621. Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D. C. 39 pp. $.35.

For 14 years now, the Office of Education has been publishing reports on the fall enrollment of students in courses creditable toward bachelor's or higher degrees. The present report is for one fall past, but it is presented here because the trends it identifies are applicable and may suggest to some readers the need to obtain a copy of the expected report on the fall, 1960 enrollment. The data for the analysis came from a card-form questionnaire sent to nearly 2,000 registrars in the "48 contiguous

states." All but five were returned (inventory senders please note!).

Some of the general findings of the survey are as follows: the 3.4 million degree-credit students in 1959 was a 4.4 per cent increase over 1958; first-time enrollments (0.85 million) increased 5.9 per cent since 1958; for every 100 persons aged 18 to 21 in the 48 states, 36 of them were degree-credit students in institutions of higher education; the greatest relative enrollment gains over the one year period were in theological and religious schools, teachers colleges, and technological schools; the greatest gains in absolute numbers were in liberal arts colleges, teachers colleges, and universities; total enrollments increased more in public institutions, but first-time enrollments, for the first time in these surveys, was proportionately greater in privately controlled institutions.

The report presents considerable elaboration on these points, of course, and with its detailed analysis and data tables, constitutes a ready reference on facts and trends in college enrollments.

Conference on Testing Problems

Invitational Conference on Testing Problems, 1959. Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J. 99 pp.

An annual event of ETS, this year's conference was given the theme, "The Impact of Testing on the Educational Process." The addresses delivered at the 1959 conference and opening remarks by the conference chairman comprise the substance of this publication of proceedings.

The morning session pertained to broad considerations of testing and the educational process. Papers were given on a general summary of the effects of tests on teachers and students; on the integration of testing into the Physical Science Study Committee's newly developed high school physics curriculum; and on expectations of the nature of the educational scene in 1957—with emphasis on education more than on testing. The afternoon session focused on specific new teaching and testing devices. Papers were given on automatic tutoring devices, teaching machines, and on self-correcting exercises being developed in English.

In general, the papers make for interesting reading on timely subjects of general as well as specific interest.

Report on Graduate Humanities Programs

Graduate General Humanities Programs, C. L. Neudling & J. H. Blessing, Bulletin 1960, No. 12. Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D. C. 126 pp. $0.50.

The Office of Education, with an eye to new developments in graduate programs, has presented here a status report on the characteristics of existing general humanities programs at the graduate level, most of which have come into being in the last 10 years. The survey leading to the reports was undertaken to identify these programs and present them in terms permitting examination of similarities and differences; to provide information to institutions considering initiating such programs; and to determine their extent and significance as a phenomenon in graduate education. Programs selected for inclusion met the following criteria: they covered the whole range of humanistic study; they aimed to provide a broad background perspective of humanistic studies or cross-departmental patterns of study in the humanities, or both; and, they had administrative identity, formal curricular requirements, and lead to a degree in Humanities. Most of the information was obtained by personal visits to the institutions.

Besides an overview and a general introduction by the authors, the bulletin contains a summary description of the six doctoral programs and the seven master's programs which were considered to have met the criteria. Each program was described according to a basic topical outline: general and comparative remarks; establishment, enrollments, degrees; admission procedures and requirements, and student characteristics; curriculum; teaching preparation and placement; organization, administration, costs; faculty; and strengths, weaknesses, changes, and developments.

In general, the report is a clear picture of several programs presented in a manner which will be useful to interested students, counselors, or institutions concerned with this type of program.

Association Activities

CARL McDANIELS, EDITOR

The Branches in Highlight

The Virginia Personnel and Guidance Association

THE VIRGINIA PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION has two immediate, long-range goals: (1) to develop an effective program that will attract and hold many personnel and guidance people from all related professional areas and (2) to build a comprehensive state organization related to APGA. At present there are three Virginia state branches—the Hampton Roads Branch, the Northern Virginia Branch, and the Richmond Branch.

In developing new state branches, VPGA has sought to find those areas of the state in which there are several members of one or more professional areas related to the personnel and guidance field who can share their interests, experiences, and knowledge to their mutual advantage.

Each of VPGA's three vice-presidents for the areas of colleges, industry, and schools serves as chairman of the membership committee for his particular area. Through his normal contacts in promoting membership, each vice-president learns of workers through whom he and the other officers and members can work to stimulate interest in starting a new branch. The branch idea is built up gradually by individual contacts, by correspondence, and by the *VPGA Newsletter,* until a group can be brought together for a meeting to learn the advantages of building its own local association affiliated with VPGA. All VPGA officers are alert for possible locations for new branches or the reactivation of old ones, and all members are urged to encourage branch development as well as to seek new members.

A state association's strength, in a large degree, depends upon its branches, just as APGA's strength depends upon its branches. While professional ties bind workers together, much is to be gained from person-to-person contacts in local organizations and at regular meetings. Personnel and guidance workers, like those in other groups, do not reach their highest development or make their maximum contribution to their profession or to society by working alone. They need to have personal contacts with others in their own and closely related fields for the stimulation and development of ideas that make for individual and group progress. The personnel workers in public and private schools, in colleges and universities, in business and industry, and in government and community organizations should be closely related for they are all members of the same team. They depend upon each other and need each others help. This is why VPGA attempts to unite *all* personnel and guidance workers in its activities.

The Virginia Personnel and Guidance Association was organized in 1927 as the Vocational Guidance Association of Virginia. After World War II, it was reorganized as the Virginia Association of Guidance and Personnel Workers, and in 1957, at the Detroit Convention, it became a branch of APGA under its present name. Originally chartered by the National Vocational Guidance Association in 1931, it continued as a branch of this Association when NVGA became a division of APGA.

From its inception, VPGA has stood for the closest kind of cooperation and coordination with industrial and other personnel leaders in Virginia. This mutual concern for the part which all guidance and personnel people play in helping to identify, utilize, and develop the human

resources of their communities is reflected in its present officers:

President—Dallas H. Smith, Director, Presbyterian Guidance Program, Presbyterian Church, U. S., Richmond; President-Elect—George O. McClary, Director of Guidance and Psychological Services, Richmond Public Schools; Vice-President, Colleges—William J. DeLong, Director of Admissions and Student Aid, Madison College, Harrisonburg; Vice-President, Industry—Robert S. Whitlow, Personnel Manager, Albemarle Paper Manufacturing Company, Richmond; Vice-President, Schools—Virginia B. Goggin, Director of Guidance, Roanoke City Schools; Secretary-Treasurer—Mrs. Willie Meade Hoban, Personnel Assistant, Atlantic Life Insurance Company, Richmond; Secretary-Treasurer-Elect—Lucille Gillespie, Counselor, George Wythe High School, Richmond.

Meetings of the Association have been limited to one each year—the State Convention—under the supervision of one of the state branches on a rotating basis. Convention programs have included the current problems and trends in personnel and guidance work related to education, government, and industry. They have varied from year to year and have included workshops, panel discussions, role playing, audio visual aids, and speakers. The 1961 Convention theme will be "Human Relations," and the meeting will be held in Richmond on March 10–11.

American Vocational Association

THE AMERICAN VOCATIONAL ASSOCIATION (AVA), founded in 1906, has as its purpose the promotion, improvement, and expansion of vocational and practical arts education; the stimulation of the professional growth of its members; and the dissemination of new materials and information both to its members and to the public.

A federation of affiliated state associations, AVA's members are teachers, teacher trainers, supervisors, and administrators in the fields of agricultural education, business education, distributive education, home economics, industrial arts, trade and industrial education, vocational guidance, and vocational rehabilitation. Membership is also open to others who are interested in the further development of these phases of education as well as to students in training for service in the field.

Official AVA divisions include agricultural education, distributive education, home economics, industrial arts, and trade and industrial education. The interests of vocational guidance are represented on the AVA Executive Committee by the Association's immediate past president.

The *American Vocational Journal,* AVA's official magazine, is issued monthly from September through May. Other publications are produced and published, frequently in quantity, to meet existing needs.

The AVA convention attracts an attendance of between 3,000 and 4,000 persons annually who devote a week of study to current trends, problems, and plans. At this time the House of Delegates, in a democratic procedure, takes action to guide the Association's affairs.

The goals of the leaders in education, industry, labor, and government who founded the original National Society for the Promotion of Vocational Education have for 54 years been translated into active programs of growth and influence for vocational and practical arts education.

In 1926, when the National Society (founded in 1906) merged with the Vocational Education Association of the Midwest (founded in 1914) the name of the organization was changed to the American Vocational Association.

Currently of special interest is AVA's preparation and distribution of a series of pamphlets designed to help the lay public understand and appreciate the goals and benefits of all phases of vocational and practical arts education. AVA has also been engaged for some time in an intensive campaign to let the people know that America must concentrate on the vocational training and retraining of its labor force if, in future years, we are to continue to maintain our economic superiority over the Communistic nations of the world.

Vocational education and good guidance procedures have an integral relationship. AVA members are pledged to the principle that successful training programs can be maintained only when they are complemented and served by sound vocational guidance programs.

The American Vocational Association has its headquarters at 1010 Vermont Avenue, N. W., Washington 5, D. C.

A.P.G.A. BOARD PREPARES NEW DIRECTORY

In January, 1961, the American Board on Professional Standards in Vocational Counseling, Inc., will publish its *1960–1962 Directory of Vocational Counseling Services,* listing those agencies which have applied for evaluation of their vocational counseling services and have met the standards established by this APGA Board.

APGA

announces the 1961

NANCY C. WIMMER PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE AWARD

for outstanding initiative, creativeness, or leadership in establishing, developing, or improving guidance and counseling practices in schools and industry in America

This award of $1,000 is made annually by APGA to someone carrying into practice the ideals for which Nancy C. Wimmer stood. The person designated by the Award Committee as winner of the $1,000, as well as the person or persons selected for Honorable Mention, will be announced at the next APGA Convention in Denver, Colorado.

Procedures:

- Obtain nominations forms from the APGA Headquarters office or from the President of your Branch.
- Fill in the form and attach supporting data for the person and practice you are nominating.
- Send this material for evaluation by the Awards Committee to the APGA Headquarters office by January 15, 1961. Address to:

AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION

1605 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W.
Washington 9, D.C.

A.P.G.A. Financial Statement

To the Executive Council
American Personnel and Guidance Association, Inc.

We have examined the financial records of American Personnel and Guidance Association, Inc., for the fiscal year May 1, 1959 to April 30, 1960 and submit herewith our report, which includes the Exhibits and Schedules listed in the preceding index.

Our examination was made in accordance with generally accepted auditing standards and accordingly included such tests of the accounting records and such other auditing procedures as we considered necessary in the circumstances. We did not undertake, however, to verify income by direct communication with the membership and other sources.

The accounting distribution of receipts and disbursements were accepted as shown by the records, supported by information and explanations obtained from officers and employees of the organization with respect to the activities of funds involved. This report does not include the activities of the various autonomous divisions and branches of the Association.

In our opinion, the accompanying Balance Sheet and Related Statement of Income present fairly the financial position of American Personnel and Guidance Association, Inc., as at April 30, 1960 and the results of its operation for the fiscal year then ended in conformity with generally accepted accounting principles applicable to non-profit organizations.

REGARDIE AND BROOKS
Certified Public Accountants
Washington, D. C.
Certified July 22, 1960

Statement of INCOME AND EXPENSE for the Fiscal Year May 1, 1959–April 30, 1960

SUMMARY

Gross Income:	
Membership Dues	$ 97,268.12
Sales of *Journal*	31,888.77
Advertising	5,613.75
Sales of Other Publications	6,534.24
1959 Convention	8,751.46
Donations	5,000.00
Miscellaneous Income	9,765.19
TOTAL GROSS INCOME	$164,821.53
Operating Expenses:	
Central Office Administration	$ 99,986.61
Building Occupancy Expenses	8,838.30
Publications	40,791.54
Membership	24,957.47
Special Services and Projects	5,163.95
APGA Committees	1,917.02
Other Association Activities and Expenses	4,647.63
TOTAL OPERATING EXPENSES	$186,302.52
Excess of Expenses over Income for the Fiscal Year	$(21,480.99)

Balance Sheet as of April 30, 1960

ASSETS

	General Fund	*Building Fund*	*Total*
Cash in Banks and on Hand	$23,915.42	...	$ 23,915.42
Deposits in Building and Loan Association	14,000.00	...	14,000.00
Accounts Receivable	11,860.20	...	11,860.20
Real Estate and Other Property	...	$291,621.83	$291,621.83
Other Assets	3,467.42	1,417.77	4,885.19
TOTAL	$53,243.04	$293,039.60	$346,282.64

LIABILITIES

	General Fund	*Building Fund*	*Total*
Note Payable	...	$ 18,500.00	$ 18,500.00
Accounts Payable	$13,109.25	3,097.65	16,206.90
Taxes Payable and Accrued	1,713.24	...	1,713.24
Deferred Income	50,591.88	11,500.00	62,091.88
Restricted Funds	15,536.57	...	15,536.57
Funded Debt	...	135,000.00	135,000.00
Fund Principal	(27,707.90)	124,941.95	97,234.05
TOTAL	$53,243.04	$293,039.60	$346,282.64

From the Executive Director . . .

TODAY, August 24, a telephone call from the Counseling Center at George Washington University inspired this column. The inquiry related to a student who was in the process of testing and counseling at the Center, but who had to return to his home in London before the professional counselor at George Washington University felt that the work with the student was completed. Information was requested as to where the young man could be referred in London to complete the counseling and testing that had been started here. We were able to furnish the name of Mr. H. Z. Hoxter, Employment Officer in the borough of East Ham, who is in a position to see that the student is referred to the proper place. In short, guidance is international.

Yesterday, Dr. Gamini Dharmasena Wijeyewardeng, Director of Guidance Services for Ceylon, called. He has completed his degree at Stanford and is returning to Ceylon by way of a conference with the International Labor Organization in Geneva to which we have sent a letter stating our possible interest in an Asiatic Conference on Guidance Services. Let me tell you a little about Dr. Wijeyewardeng's program. In Ceylon he has trained 2,000 counselors who serve in the elementary and secondary schools on released time. He is in the process of training 6,000 more. In answer to the natural question of how this impressive job was done, he replied that the first group of part-time counselors were trained by him—100 of them. These people in turn have been providing advanced guidance education for others. In addition, Dr. Milton E. Hahn who is serving as Consultant in Guidance to Ceylon has been training 35 counseling psychologists. These persons will become full-time counselors. All of the counselors are trained to the point that provides for their certification which is similar to that in many of our states.

One feature of the Ceylon program is the large amount of work done with the Parent-Teacher Association. The guidance services of Ceylon have really provided the subject matter and work program for the PTA's. Through the PTA's, the guidance services are reaching into the homes and assisting in the home responsibilities for the development of children. In Ceylon the initial emphasis of the guidance work was strictly vocational, but it is now enlarged to a much broader scope. It is the approach to counseling that one expects to see in the better school systems in this country.

It is worth noting that in Ceylon examinations are required for certification and also that counselors are held strictly accountable for their adherence to a 10-point code of ethics modeled upon the Committee Report of APGA. It is the feeling of the guidance personnel and others in education in Ceylon that guidance work in schools is highly important to a democratic country. Others among the Asiatic nations feel exactly the same way. Guidance is the vital measure upon which democratic societies depend.

A short time ago, Professor Koichi Masuda of Osaka University sent us a publication entitled *Vocational Development of the Adolescent.* This publication in Japanese and English relates a series of studies of considerable importance in the guidance of adolescents. Persons in the United States in the field of guidance would feel much at home with titles such as "Individual Development of Individual Aspiration," or "Study on the Development of Vocational Interest." This is a very fine document illustrating the extent to which guidance services have developed in Japan. Japan and the United States have had a long-standing history of cooperation in the field of guidance. From the APGA point of view, this relationship has developed strength through the work of Dean Wesley P. Lloyd of Brigham Young University. Professor Masuda in Japan is a staunch friend of APGA.

Not long ago, correspondence with Professor Yang Pao-Chien, Dean of Students, Taiwan Normal University, and Mr. Sheng Shin, Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission, illustrated the extent of penetration of the Guidance Association of China into the life of Formosa. For example, the Association is taking leadership in studies of delinquency and programs for the prevention of delinquency.

The Asia Foundation is a great friend of APGA in its relationships with Asiatic nations. Mrs. Edith Coliver of the Programs Services Division of the Asia Foundation recently sent a copy of the English translation of the Burmese guidebook issued by the Counseling Service for entering freshmen at the University of Rangoon. According to Mrs. Coliver, "This is the first time in the history of the University that such printed guidance material has been released."

Dr. Warnken, the counseling specialist provided by the Foundation to Rangoon University, and his associates, compiled the Guidebook. This exemplifies further the development of guidance services at all levels of education in the Asiatic nations.

Those who attended the APGA Convention in Philadelphia are well aware that the Association in the Philippines and the guidance representatives from other of the Asiatic nations illustrate so splendidly that guidance services are on the march in these important nations.

In its relationship around the world, APGA has been led to the track of further associations with Central and South American nations. Dr. Clarence W. Failor, who has recently made a study of guidance in Central America, has reported that in Guatemala, for example, there are counselors in the schools in numbers and quality that could well be the envy of many school systems in the United States. In South American nations, similar developments are occurring.

Dr. Donald E. Super, former APGA President, is currently assisting the Government of Poland in the establishment of centers for counseling psychology services. This has valuable implications.

This account of the close, day-by-day relationships that occur with guidance interests throughout the world is indeed brief. Our own International Relations Committee which is so active reports from time to time. What we are trying to say here is that in our position in a world society, APGA has a very important relationship with sister organizations in nations of Europe, Asia, the Far East, the Near East, Central and South America, Canada, other parts of the world, and most certainly a potential obligation and opportunity in Africa. Just as the Asiatic nations are finding that the development of their democratic way of life has a fundamental base in guidance services in the school, so it is hoped that the nations of Africa that are finding their national ways will also be able to develop the strength of good guidance services in their schools.

In these international respects we are one of an international family. We have much to learn from others, and we have some things to contribute. It is to be hoped that in the future we will be able to see our way clearly ahead to continue our most effective relationship to guidance throughout the world.—ARTHUR A. HITCHCOCK

WHO'S WHO

—and Where

We are eager to reflect in this column news of the professional activities and job changes of our members. Please keep us informed. Notice should be sent to the attention of the Assistant Editor.—Ed.

WILLIAM P. ANGERS, formerly Staff Psychologist at Fordham University has joined the staff of the Counseling Center of Newark College of Engineering as a Counselor.

J. ALFRED MCCAUSLIN who was Dean of Student Life at Wilmington College, Wilmington, Ohio, is now Dean of Students, Bloomsburg State College, Bloomsburg, Pennsylvania.

Reverend G. Gordon Henderson, S.J., formerly Director of the Guidance Department, University of Scranton, Scranton, Pennsylvania, received an appointment as Student Counselor at Wheeling College, Wheeling, West Virginia, on June 18, 1960. Rev. Henderson received the Ph.D. degree in Counseling Psychology from the University of Ottawa in March of this year.

Milt F. Tosky who was College Counselor (College Transfer Division), Daytona Beach Junior College, Daytona Beach, Florida, has been named Director of the College's Mary Karl Vocational Division.

W. L. Cash, Jr., Director, Counseling and Testing Center and Professor of Psychology at Prairie View A & M College since 1953 has accepted an appointment as Visiting Professor of Psychology at the University of North Dakota for the 1960–1961 academic year and will serve as Counselor Trainer for the NDEA Counseling and Guidance Training Institute. Dr. Cash was also recently appointed to the staff of the Human Relations Workshop of the University of Michigan for the fourth consecutive summer session.

Owen J. Kittredge has been appointed Supervisor of Education, Office of Guidance Placement, Department of Education, The Commonwealth of Massachusetts. Mr. Kittredge served previously as Director of Guidance in Abington High School, North Abington, Massachusetts.

Herbert Righthand has been transferred from his position as Assistant Director of the J. M. Wright Technical School, Stamford, Connecticut, to the position of Director of the Norwich Regional Technical School, Norwich, Connecticut.

Earl T. Zwetschke has left his position as Director of the Counseling Service at Colorado State College to accept an appointment as Director of Counseling for the Oakland, California, Secondary Schools. Dr. Zwetschke assumed his new duties on August 25.

James F. Magary, formerly associated with the Canal Zone Schools, has accepted a position as Assistant Professor of Guidance and Educational Psychology at the University of Southern California, Los Angeles. He also recently edited *The Exceptional Child: A Book of Readings*, which was published by Henry Holt & Co.

Kent M. Christiansen has accepted a position as Director of Guidance for the Holt Public Schools in Holt, Michigan.

Lois L. Lauterbach, Counselor, Belleville High School, St. Louis, Missouri, was recently married to James E. Woods, formerly a Teaching Assistant at the University of Illinois. Mr. and Mrs. Woods will make their home in Grand Forks, North Dakota, where Mr. Woods is Chief Psychologist at the Medical Center Rehabilitation Unit, University of North Dakota.

Donald H. Blocher, former Counselor, Edina-Morningside Junior High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota, has assumed the position of Assistant Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

Betty H. Neely, Assistant Dean of Students at the University of California, Berkeley, has been promoted to the position of Associate Dean of Students. Mrs. Neely has been with the University since 1954.

Richard A. Schutz, who served as a Counseling Psychology Trainee at the Minneapolis VA Hospital, is now Director of Vocational Rehabilitation Center and Placement Unit, Kansas Neurological Institute, Topeka, Kansas.

Frank G. Denison has resigned as Coordinator of Guidance at Antioch Township High School, Antioch, Illinois, to accept a position as Director of Guidance Services at Washington High School, Two Rivers, Wisconsin. He assumed his new duties on August 1.

Gifts to the Building Fund

This supplements the listings of contributors to the APGA Building Fund that appeared in the November, 1958 and 1959, issues of the *Journal* and includes all contributions received since August 15, 1959. In the case of an individual or a group that has made another contribution since the first two lists appeared, the name is again shown on this list. Many of these people, and a number of Branches, have actually made several contributions.

Abbott, Chauncy W
Abbott, Constance E
Aborn, Pennell N
Abraham, A A
Allard, Charles G
Allen, Beverly B
Allison, Ethel G
Altman, Esther R
Amata, Sister M
Anders, Maurice C
Anderson, Gordon V
Anderson, Jean E
Anderson, Lawrence
Anderson, Robert P
Andrews, Anne
Andrews, Irene H
Angermeier, W F
Apostal, Robert A
Arnold, Dorothy L
Arnold, Walter M
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Austin, Dorothy
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Baglien, D
Bailard, Virginia
Baird, C R
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Balough, Theodore W
Bangel, Morris
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Beigh, Max E
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Bethea, W F
Binder, Etta M
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Blanchard, Carroll M
Blanchard, Howard L
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Blaser, Donald C
Bledsoe, Ernestine
Bliss, Katharine A
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Boger, D L
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Bond, Margaret A
Bonk, Edward C
Bordin, Edward S
Boswell, Laurie R
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Bourque, Rev E A
Bovenizer, Eldred R
Bowdoin, Donald E
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Brinn, Carolyn
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Bruce, Helen
Brush, Ross H
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Chatfield, Lee W
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Childs, Donald S
Chinn, Howard J
Chism, T D
Christensen, H M
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Clark, Victoria M
Claudon, Fred
Clawson, Lois
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Crogan, Alfred
Crow, Alice
Crow, Lester
Curry, Lillian P
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Davis, Earl C
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DeRenzo, Grace C
Derthick, H J
Detwiler, Harry G
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Felder, Idus D
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Fiore, A Ralph
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Fullington, Mildred E
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Gentry, Curtis G
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Hall, Oreta
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Kennedy, Leo R
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Larson, Robert E
Laughlin, Frances
Lay, Permelia R
Ledyard, F M
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Leonard, Louise C
Levine, Sara
Lewis, H J
Lewis, Russel L

Leyrer, Faye B
Lincoln, Edward A
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Lofgren, Lucy M
Logie, Iona R
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Lowe, William R, Jr
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Malnig, Lawrence R
Malpert, Rudolph
Manger, William C
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Marcus, Michael M
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Martin, Grace M
Martin, Roberts R
Martineau, Rev Edward
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Mathews, Quinten S
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Mauritzson, Tyra
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McClelland, Mrs F M
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McGough, Norman E
McIsaac, Robert H

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McKenney, Margaret A
McKenzie, John P
McLaughlin, Rita A
McNeely, Mary J
McShann, Frances C
Mead, Kenneth
Mechling, Carl
Mechtersheimer, Sue
Meeks, Anna R
Meissner, Wilhelmine E
Menadue, Rev Trueman J
Merriman, Richard A
Metzger, Elnora S
Metzger, Ludwig C
Michael, Vernon D
Milani, Evelyn
Miles, M G
Miller, Gregory A
Miller, Leonard M
Miller, Lyle L
Miller, Pearl
Misenar, Burman J
Mitchell, Mrs Blythe C
Mitchell, C L
Mitchell, Dicksie P
Monda, Cornell P
Montgomery, Lola J
Moore, Helene
Moore, Mary R
Moorman, Jane D
Moosey, Eleanor R
Morgan, Irma
Morgan, Thelma T
Morrison, Gerald
Moses, John G
Mothner, J Richard
Mueller, Ruth H
Murphy, G William
Murphy, Harold D
Murphy, Ione
Murphy, Mabel B
Murray, Merrill R
Mutty, M Josephine
Myers, George E
Neal, Ruth
Nebe, Henry J
Nelson, Gwendel A
Newmar, Mrs W R
Newton, Darwin R
Nickerson, Fred W
Nolan, Margaret M
Nold, Woodrow V
Noonan, James J
Norem, Grant M
Norrell, Gwendolyn
Northrup, Catherine M
Norton, Joseph L
Nourse, Lyda G
Nuss, H E
Nydegger, Carol M
Nye, Virginia
O'Connor, Rev Leslie L
Odell, Esther
Oelke, Merritt C
Ohlsen, Merle M
Olds, Clifton W
Oleson, B Gale
Ostrom, Stanley R
Otis, C Robert
Owens, F Marie
Palermo, Richard R
Pamplin, Elizabeth H
Park, Mrs J F
Parker, Donald H
Parkes, J Carter
Paterson, John J
Patterson, C H
Patterson, Margaret E
Pauley, Berthold
Peagler, Owen F
Pearson, I M
Pearson, Ruth W
Peets, Carl O
Pellettieri, J A
Penman, Beatrice E
Percy, Richard H
Perkins, H A
Perry, William D
Phipps, Lila O
Pike, Earl
Pinel, Gladys R
Pineles, Zelda
Pompeo, Alfred P
Poscover, Virginia H
Postmus, Margaret
Potter, Harold C
Powell, Rose
Preston, Dorothy A
Price, Charles B
Price, Mable
Provost, R L
Pryse, Henry F
Pulliam, Rufus
Pumroy, Donald K
Puzey, Garland W
Rafferty, Thomas W
Raney, Helen L
Rapp, Ted C
Ratchick, Irving
Read, Julia E
Reaves, O L, Jr
Reid, Howard T
Reimensnyder, Thomas M
Reing, Mrs Karl P
Renzaglia, Guy
Reynolds, Marie E
Rice, Dorothy A
Richardson, Barbara C
Richardson, O T
Rife, Marvin
Rimer, Margaret M
Rinns, John L
Ritchey, Ronald E
Rivers, Sara A
Rives, Eugenia
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It seeks to help personnel and guidance workers in schools, colleges and universities, vocational counseling agencies, social agencies, business and industry, and government by keeping them informed of developments in the field.

The *Journal* is designed as a publication medium for articles dealing with significant practices in personnel and guidance work, current problems in the field, trends in training personnel and guidance workers, and theory and research that give promise of practical application.

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WASHINGTON FLASHES

Transmitted by Max F. Baer

FIRST GUIDANCE TRAINING INSTITUTES

Report available: U. S. Office of Education has published report of first 50 National Defense Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes, which were sponsored during summer of 1959 by 50 colleges and universities. Institutes served total of 2,210 enrollees, most of whom attended for six to eight weeks. Median enrollment was 38. Almost two-thirds were males. Fifty-six per cent were over 35 years of age. About same proportion had at least two years of experience in counseling and guidance. Although a few States had as many as three institutes and others none, enrollees were drawn from all parts of country.

FRINGE BENEFITS

Fringe benefits double: Employees of 1,064 large and small business firms throughout country averaged $1,132 in fringe benefits in 1959, according to seventh report on fringe benefits by U. S. Chamber of Commerce. Fringe benefits paid by 108 firms which had participated in previous surveys doubled between 1947 and 1959. Employees averaged $22.80 in fringe benefits for every $100 in wages.

Breakdown of fringe benefits: Social security, unemployment compensation, workmen's compensation, and other legally required employee benefits averaged $4.20 for every $100 in wages. Private pension and insurance programs, separation pay, and other agreed-upon payments averaged $7.20. Paid vacations, holidays, rest periods, sick leaves, and other payments for time not worked averaged $9.60. Profit-sharing payments, bonuses, and similar payments averaged $1.80. Nearly 90 per cent of companies surveyed had employee pension programs. All but two per cent had insurance programs and paid vacations. Highest fringe benefits, as per cent of payroll, were paid by banks, finance and trust companies (31.7 per cent), insurance companies (27.1 per cent), petroleum industry (28.3 per cent); lowest were paid by hotels (13.8 per cent).

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION MOVES FORWARD

Enrollments rise: Total number of students who attended vocational classes in 1959 under Federal-State cooperative program reached 3,701,121, according to U. S. Office of Education.

This is increase of 71,782 or 1.9 per cent over 1958. Program was authorized in 1917 with passage of Smith-Hughes Act, which provided for cooperation between Federal Government and States in promotion of vocational education of less than college grade. Total enrollment in first year, 1918, was 164,186. Supplementary legislation enacted since 1917 has promoted and further developed program. Enrollment in 1959 was broken down as follows: agriculture, 757,223 (reduction of 28,000 since 1956); home economics, 1,585,860 (increase of 100,000 since 1956); trades and industry, 968,114 (increase of 85,000 since 1956); distributive occupations, 310,591 (increase of 53,000 since 1956); practical nursing, 30,769 (increase of 24,000 since 1957); area programs, 48,564 (1959 was first year).

Expenditures: Money spent on these programs has doubled over 10-year period. Total expenditures in 1959 were $228,314,-600, of which Federal Government contributed $41,399,068, States contributed $79,534,444, and local governments spent $107,381,087.

COSTS OF EDUCATION

Public school costs: According to U. S. Office of Education, average expenditure per pupil in public elementary and secondary schools jumped from more than $100 in 1940 to over $300 in 1956. In general, there is direct relationship between annual costs and size of cities. For example, in 1946 average expenditure for cities of over 100,000 population was $329 and only $268 in cities with less than 5,000 population.

Higher education costs: Annual cost of undergraduate tuition at publicly supported colleges and universities increased by 165 per cent between 1940 and 1959; increase in private institutions was 130 per cent. However, tuition costs at private schools are about four times as great as at public institutions. Average annual total cost to undergraduate students attending colleges and universities doubled between 1940 and 1957.

FACTS ON TWO MEDIA OF COMMUNICATION

Telephones: About three out of four households in United States were serviced by telephones in March, 1958, according to special tabulation by Bureau of Census. Median income of households with telephones was about double that of households without telephones.

Newspapers: Two out of three households in United States had daily or Sunday newspapers delivered to their homes in May, 1959, according to survey by Bureau of Census. Of these about 23.5 million households had both daily and Sunday papers delivered to their doors, 8.3 million received only daily papers, and additional 1.5 million subscribed only to Sunday papers.

Quantitative Measurement in the Initial Screening of Rehabilitation Potential

THE DISABILITY provisions of the Social Security Act provide that applicants for these benefits be afforded the opportunity of referral for vocational rehabilitation. As a result, there has been a tremendous increase in the number of applicants brought to the attention of state rehabilitation agencies. This mass of referrals, added to the duties of an already overburdened counseling staff, has made it impractical to furnish a counselor's personal evaluation of an individual's rehabilitation possibilities.

To cope with this situation, a procedure was established to eliminate or "screen out" applicants whose potential was insufficient to warrant further rehabilitation consideration. The remaining group was "screened in" and referred. Case data accompanied these referrals for the rehabilitation counselor's evaluation. On the basis of this information, he either closed the case with no further action or pursued it for further study, including personal contact. These procedures have markedly reduced the number of individuals referred to state rehabilitation agencies.

However, an important question remains as to whether such procedures select applicants possessing sufficient potential for rehabilitation assistance. Rehabilitation counselors have often expressed opinions that many of the cases "screened in" and referred actually should have been "screened out" and not referred. Furthermore, other difficulties became manifest due to the fact that the procedures utilized, up to the point of personal contact by the counselor, involved making decisions limited to an examination of "paper" data. The unavailability of specific evaluative criteria resulted in subjective and inconsistent decisions.

Although counselors performing adjudication functions generally used many of the same factors in making their decisions on rehabilitation potential, our research indicated the existence of several variations which led to actual differences and errors in decisions. These errors were found to be due to counselors going beyond the "paper" data and injecting personal attitudes and knowledges into their evaluation. In some instances, counselors who were making disability determinations and were not in contact with current labor market information

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were nevertheless using their limited knowledge of the job market in "screening in" or "out." Other counselors made their decisions on the basis of their personal bias with respect to the relationship of advancing age to employability, regardless of other positive factors. Some made inferences with regard to motivation which could only have been ascertained by extensive personal contact.

After several years of experience with these screening procedures, there is general agreement among administrative and supervisory personnel in rehabilitation that the referral system is not operating as well as it should. These persons urge that new and improved methods be sought to insure a more effective screening-referral process [2].

Based on this need, an experimental attempt was made to reduce to quantitative terms the initial assessment of rehabilitation potential. This technique is limited to the evaluation of potential using only reported case data, such as medical reports, earnings records, educational and occupational histories, etc. This experimental approach makes no attempt to evaluate data which would ensue from personal interviews such as motivation, attitudes, work habits, etc. Although the authors concede that these factors are significant in the final assessment of rehabilitation potential, such data is not present in the paper data used during the initial screening process.

Procedure

1. *Development of Rehabilitation Potential Scale.* The first step was the isolation of the basic major factors in case data which all adjudication counselors used in making the decision on rehabilitation potential. The factors identified through general agreement among counselors were quadridimensional and consisted of *Medical, Age, Occupation,* and *Education.* The second step was to define each of these factors in terms of its positive contribution or weight in rehabilitation potential. The third step was to assign a rating value to each factor based upon a system involving four classifications.

These three steps of establishing factors, weights, and values were not designed as a substitute for the counselor's judgment but sought to quantify judgment and to relate the factors adequately and consistently.

In order to minimize biases in judgments and to obtain objectivity in rating, it was hypothesized that persons in good medical condition would have higher rehabilitation potential than those in poor condition; that persons of younger age would have better rehabilitation possibilities than older persons; and those with higher level educational and occupational backgrounds would fare better in rehabilitation than those with lower level backgrounds.

The weights, therefore, aimed to establish an objective continuum for placing a person on a scale from high to low for each of these factors based on this hypothesis.

Conceptualizing a scheme of rating and weight values which would yield a maximum score of 100 for the highest rehabilitation potential, rating values were placed on a four-point continuum.

Based upon the contribution of each factor to rehabilitation potential in a scale of weights with the required total of 25, the distribution was as follows: Medical, 13; Age, 8; Occupation, 2; Education, 2.

This distribution of weights was made on the following basis:

1. Counselors generally agreed that the medical factor was a little over 50 per cent of the total weight compared with the other factors.

2. Counselors rated the age factor as about one-third of the total weight.

3. Counselors rated education and experience as about equal in importance, but third or fourth in importance compared with medical and age.

In testing these weights, experimentation was carried on with adjudicative counselors independently, as a team, and with case records, to test various weights against decisions at clear-cut and borderline levels. Subsequent research revealed that the weights established on this basis were valid.

FIGURE 1 shows the weights for each factor, the rating values, and definitions of the criteria for measurement of rehabilitation potential. The relationships shown by the data in FIGURE 1 portray the inherent objectivity incorporated in this approach to the screening-referral process.

To illustrate, a value of 4 for the medical factor applies to a case in which study indicates that the claim is *disallowed* for disability benefits, by virtue of a *clear-cut* lack of medical severity. This case would be rated as having *high* potential in the medical factor. A value of 3 for the medical factor applies to a case that is *disallowed,* but the decision to disallow is not *clear-cut,* and falls within the *disallow-borderline* category. This case would be rated as having *moderate* potential. A rating of 2 for the medical factor applies to a case that is *allowed,* but is not *clear-cut,* and falls within the *allow-borderline* category. Such a case would be rated as having *low* potential. A rating of 1 for the medical factor applies to a case that is *allowed* and *clear-cut.* In this case the rating would be *very low* potential.

In order to measure the age factor quantitatively, it was necessary to realistically relate this factor to increasing difficulty in securing employment with advancing age. A commonly accepted concept is that individuals under age 40 have a more favorable opportunity to secure employment than individuals beyond this age. Consequently, claimants 40 years of age and under would be rated as having the highest potential. Other age criteria are shown in FIGURE 1.

The occupational hierarchy established in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* was combined into a four-level classification system. These levels and corresponding ratings are shown in FIGURE 1.

The educational classification has as its basic construct that the amount of education is positively correlated with possibilities and opportunities for employment [*1*]. Post-secondary education under this concept would receive the highest rating. The remaining educational criteria and corresponding ratings are shown in FIGURE 1.

By the use of these weights, values, and criteria, it is possible to quantify 256 kinds of ratings or judgments about an individual's rehabilitation potential. The score

FIGURE 1

Weights, Values, and Criteria for Factors of Rehabilitation Potential

		Rating and Values			
Factor	*Weight*	*High* 4	*Moderate* 3	*Low* 2	*Very Low* 1
Medical	13	Disallow (Clear-cut)	Disallow (Borderline)	Allow (Borderline)	Allow (Clear-cut)
Age (at last birthday)	8	40 and under	41–54	55–60	61 and over
Occupation	2	Professional Semi-Prof. Managerial	Skilled Clerical Sales & Kindred	Semi-skilled Service Agricultural Fishery & Kindred	Unskilled
Education* (Grade completed)	2	13 and up	10–12	5–9	0–4
TOTAL	25				

* Equivalent credit is given for each year of technical or other specialized training.

is secured by obtaining the sum of the weighted ratings. This sum is referred to as RPV, Rehabilitation Potential Value. The formula is:

$$\text{RPV} = \left[\sum M_{wt} \times R_{1..4} + A_{wt} \times R_{1..4} + O_{wt} \times R_{1..4} + E_{wt} \times R_{1..4} \right]$$

The terms M_{wt}, A_{wt}, O_{wt}, E_{wt} refer to the assigned weights for the medical, age, occupation, and education factors. The term $R_{1..4}$ refers to the specific rating value 1, 2, 3, or 4 assigned to each of the factors for the individual case.

2. *Jury Ratings.* The following procedure was used to evaluate the effectiveness of the RPV Scale to predict rehabilitation potential and was based upon a random selection of 100 cases, comprised of applicants for Social Security disability benefits. Two criterion groups were established to render decisions on each of these cases. Each group worked independently as a jury and was composed of three specialists. One of these juries was comprised of three rehabilitation field counselors. This group will be referred to as the *Rehabilitation Counselor Jury.* The other group was composed of the Chief of the Counseling Section and two counseling psychologists from the Veterans Administration. This group will be referred to as the *Counseling Psychologist Jury.* The jury method for validation was used because it is known that a unanimous decision rendered by a group of specialists is a better basis for rating purposes than an individual judgment. Juries were not involved in the construction of the RPV Scale.

The selection of the jury composition was determined by the need to use specialists who in their daily activities are confronted with problems of evaluating persons for rehabilitation potential. All members of both juries have this function as a primary responsibility. No physicians were used in the juries because each of these groups of specialists are accustomed and experienced in analyzing medical data available in reported form. The use of two juries furnished the additional advantage of providing the opportunity to study the relationship between the juries and brought into the experiment an agency operating directly under the screening-referral procedures being studied, as well as an agency not so directly involved.

Each jury rendered a team decision based upon their own study of the case data. Their decision was made in terms of the one most applicable of the four following categories: (1) Screen in, Clear-cut; (2) Screen in, Borderline; (3) Screen out, Borderline; (4) Screen out, Clear-cut.

3. *Adjudicator Ratings.* Each counselor who adjudicated the case for Social Security benefits in the experimental sample of the 100 cases also made an independent decision in terms of either screen in or screen out for vocational rehabilitation. It is a regular procedure for an adjudicator to make a decision in this manner. In this study, the person making this decision will be referred to as the *Original Adjudicator.*

4. *RPV Scale Ratings.* Each of the 100 cases was rated independently by use of the RPV Scale by three adjudicators not previously involved with these cases. These scale raters will be referred to as *Adjudicators A, B, and C.*

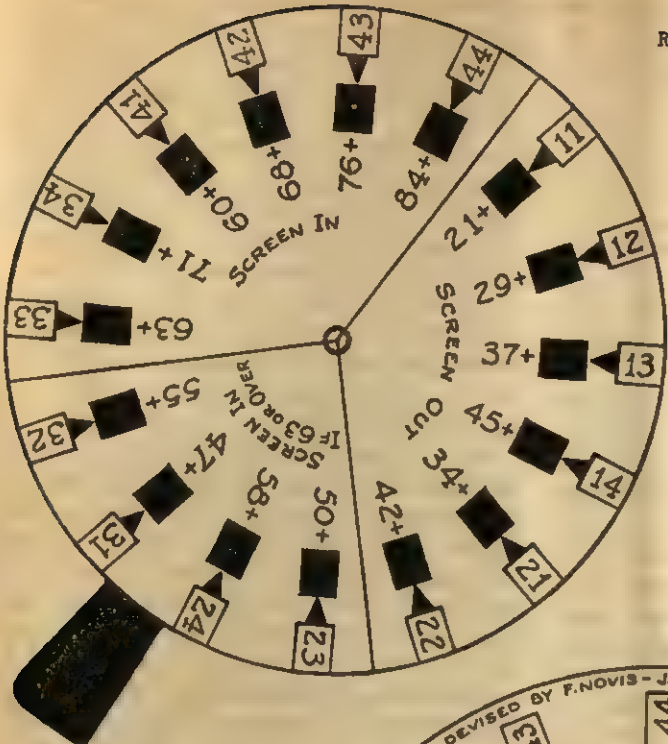
5. *Time Recording.* Each jury recorded time in minutes involved in reaching each decision. Adjudicators A, B, and C, using the RPV Scale, made a similar time recording.

6. *Scoring Method.* The following scoring procedure for the RPV Scale was developed: Each of the 256 possible ratings were pre-calculated on the basis of the RPV formula, and the results were placed in an ordered series on a circular slide rule. Through this method, it is possible to dial any rating combination and by the addition of two numbers to arrive at the RPV Score. FIGURE 2 shows the circular slide rule (Screenometer).

Results

1. *Distribution of RPV Scores.* The distribution of RPV scores showed a range from 25–94 of a possible range of 25–100. Comparison of the mean and median scores of Adjudicators A, B, and C showed, for all practical purposes, identical values. These scores were as follows: Adjudicator A, mean 50.75 and median 48.13; Adjudicators

FIGURE 2



N M Z
Rehabilitation
SCREENOMETER
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N M Z
Rehabilitation
SCREENOMETER

Copies of the Screenometer and operating instructions may be obtained by writing to Dr. Frederick W. Novis, 33 Garden Street, Hartford, Connecticut.

TABLE 1

Relationship Between Decisions of Criterion Groups

Criterion Groups	*Class**	χ^2†	*Contingency Coefficient (Corrected)*	*Phi$_r$*
Rehab. Counselor Jury—Counseling Psych. Jury	4x4	200.79	0.94	...
Rehab. Counselor Jury—Counseling Psych. Jury	3x3	62.80	0.76	...
Rehab. Counselor Jury—Counseling Psych. Jury	2x2	34.25	0.71	0.92
Original Adjudicator—Rehab. Counselor Jury	2x2	35.41	0.72	0.93
Original Adjudicator—Counseling Psych. Jury	2x2	34.43	0.71	0.92

* Classification: 4x4 decisions classified into Screen in, Clear-cut; Screen in, Borderline; Screen out, Borderline; Screen out, Clear-cut. 3x3 decisions classified into Screen in; Borderline; Screen out. 2x2 decisions classified into Screen in; Screen out.

† All significant at < 0.001 level.

B and C were identical with a mean of 50.65 and median of 47.88.

2. *Reliability.* TABLE 1 shows the results of the study of correlation between the various groups or individuals who made the prescribed screening decisions. The chi-squares for all of the possible relationships were found to be highly significant.

The results of the intercorrelation of RPV scores between Adjudicators A, B, and C clearly indicate a very high degree of reliability in the use of the RPV Scale. The Pearson r's were as follows: Adjudicator A with B, 0.96; Adjudicator A with C, 0.96; Adjudicator C with B, 0.99. All correlations were significant at the <0.001 level.

3. *Derivation of Critical Cut-off Points.* The decisions of the juries, when related to the distribution of mean RPV scores, served to establish cut-off points for the delineation of high or low rehabilitation potential. The results indicated that the Rehabilitation Counselor Jury screened out 74 cases and screened in 26. In finding the cut-off point, the RPV of the 26th screen-in case was found from the total RPV distribution. This value may be designated as the cut-off point at and above which decisions represent high rehabilitation potential. This was done in a similar manner for the other jury. The combined results of this procedure indicated that the borderline range evolving from the jury process can be established between the RPV scores of 54 and 61 inclusive.

4. *Validity.* RPV scores, compared with the Rehabilitation Counselor Jury decisions, showed a chi-square of 57.97, significant at the <0.001 level, and a corrected contingency coefficient of 0.86. The RPV scores, compared with the decisions of the Counseling Psychologist Jury, showed a chi-square of 42.28, significant at the <0.001 level, and a corrected contingency coefficient of 0.77. In addition, the biserial r was computed with the following results: The RPV scores with the Counseling Psychologist Jury yielded an r_{bi} of 0.91; the RPV scores with the Rehabilitation Counselor Jury yielded an r_{bi} of 0.80. These results indicate a high relationship between jury decisions and RPV scores.

TABLE 2 shows a high relationship between the RPV ratings obtained by Adjudicators A, B, and C and each of the juries. All chi-square values were significant at <0.001 level. Corrected contingency coefficient values ranged from 0.75 to 0.84.

5. *Analysis of Medical Factor.* Although the complete RPV Scale was not exposed to item analysis, the most heavily weighted factor (Medical) was subjected to special study by relating this factor alone to the total rehabilitation potential value scores obtained by one adjudicator. The result was a chi-square of 69.78, significant at the <0.001 level and a corrected contingency coefficient of 0.91.

6. *Time Analysis.* A study of the time taken by jury action, compared with time for RPV Scale method, gave the following results: Rehabilitation Counselor Jury:

TABLE 2

Relationship Between Rating of Rehabilitation Potential by Adjudicators A, B, and C, and Decisions of Rehabilitation Counselor Jury and Counseling Psychologist Jury

Variables	X^{2}*	*Contingency Coefficient (Corrected)*
Adjudicator A—Rehab. Counselor Jury	44.43	0.78
Adjudicator B—Rehab. Counselor Jury	39.40	0.75
Adjudicator C—Rehab. Counselor Jury	40.47	0.76
Adjudicator A—Counseling Psychologist Jury	54.33	0.84
Adjudicator B—Counseling Psychologist Jury	46.48	0.80
Adjudicator C—Counseling Psychologist Jury	44.03	0.78

* All significant at the <0.001 level.

mean, 5.08; median, 4.19. Counseling Psychologist Jury: mean, 6.34; median, 5.94. Each of these figures must be multiplied by 3 to equate them for individual time. Adjudicators A, B, and C, using the RPV Scale, showed the following time in minutes: Adjudicator A: mean, 2.14; median, 2.05. Adjudicator B: mean, 2.16; median, 1.96. Adjudicator C: mean, 2.43; median, 2.19.

Summary and Conclusions

The results of this research give encouragement to the idea of placing greater emphasis on objective criteria and quantitative techniques in the field of vocational rehabilitation and, particularly, in the initial evaluation of rehabilitation potential. It appears to be possible to isolate and quantify basic case data factors which contribute to rehabilitation potential. The use of quantitative techniques provides several advantages which are inherent in the nature of measurement. Personal biases and extraneous factors are eliminated from the evaluation process. Instead, there is assurance that only certain significant designated data are considered in every decision. The result, therefore, is objectivity of decisions and consistency and uniformity of judgments.

Essentially, whether rehabilitation potential is assessed by an adjudicator counselor or a rehabilitation counselor, their decisions should not be contradictory. To the degree that there are discrepancies in decisions by such personnel, there will be instances where claimants are erroneously found to be insufficiently disabled for social security benefits and yet be denied rehabilitation services. Inasmuch as the criteria utilized in this study are the same as those used by rehabilitation workers and adjudicator counselors in the assessment of rehabilitation potential, discrepancies in such decisions are minimized.

The experimental scale which was developed as part of this research indicates the possibility of delineating three groups of cases during the initial screening process: cases where potential clearly warrant additional assessment by rehabilitation counselors including personal interviews; cases where potential is so low that rehabilitation efforts, from a vocational point of view, are contra-indicated; cases where potential is borderline and decisions require procedures beyond those offered by use of the RPV Scale alone. The size of this latter group is directly related to the critical cutoff score, the establishment of which is flexible to the point of allowing a rehabilitation agency to undertake further evaluation and services to more of this group.

The authors believe that the methods used in this experiment provide new avenues for research in case assessment and analysis. With further research, refinement, and adaptations, the principles embodied in the RPV Scale may be applied to many other uses. Some of these are:

1. Assessment of case loads of rehabilitation counselors, through the development of a case difficulty index.

2. Comparison of RPV scores with actual case outcomes.

3. Development of an employability index which may be used in business and industry, workmen's compensation, public employment and community welfare agencies, and the Veterans Administration as a

guide for retirement or employment retention, to determine degree of employable capacity, and to ascertain potential for work and rehabilitation.

4. As a research and statistical tool to disclose rapidly the characteristics of a case load as to such factors as medical severity, age range, occupational and educational levels.

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WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON AGING SLATED FOR JANUARY

The White House Conference on Aging, the first of its kind in the history of our nation, will be held in Washington, D. C., January 9–12, 1961. Authorized by act of Congress in 1958, this citizens' conference has been called by the President and is being planned under the direction of the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. Preceding the national meeting, a series of forums, meetings, and conferences will be held at the community and state levels; facts and recommendations developed at the state conferences will then be presented to the White House Conference.

Specifically, the Conference will meet to identify and define all of the varied problems confronting the nation's older people and to recommend actions that will meet those problems. The purpose of the conference will be to develop recommendations and plans for action that can be used by communities, states, the Federal Government, private organizations, and older people themselves in taking steps to assure older people equal employment opportunities; provide older people adequate housing at reasonable prices; aid older people in living full, productive lives; and expand research on the problems of aging—physical, mental, and social.

Approximately 3,000 delegates will participate in the Conference. Of these, 1,740 will be delegates appointed by the state governors and 660 will represent national voluntary organizations. APGA has three official delegates but other members will be attending as representatives of the Federal Government, state delegations, and other organizations. These members will represent the personnel and guidance profession and will help to further develop the role it can play in a better life for our older citizens.

Methodological Problems in Evaluation

C. H. PATTERSON

IT IS A TRUISM that research in the social sciences presents problems which are not present in the physical sciences. One of the most important problems inheres in the fact that, at least in a democratic society, we seldom are able to engage in experiments, that is, crucial experiments, with human beings. This has led many to claim that the social sciences are not really sciences, since science is often equated with experimentation. But experiment is not a necessary element of science; astronomy is recognized as a science, yet it is not based on experimentation. The criterion of a science is not a particular method, such as experimentation, but that the method can be replicated and that the method leads to the deriving of inferences or conclusions whose bases are acceptable to other trained investigators. This requires the use of variables which can be measured in some way but which are not necessarily subject to direct manipulation or control.

Nevertheless, the influence of the experimental method is so strong that it is regarded as the highest type of research. We are concerned about the rigorousness of our research, and it is assumed that "the most rigorous research designs involve experimentation" [*6*]. This worship of rigorousness has, as has been frequently pointed out, led to the restriction of research to those problems which could be attacked by experimental methods. One writer has expressed this result in the title of an article, "Experimental Design: A Cloak for Intellectual Sterility" [*17*]. Another [*11*] suggests that "due to a misinterpretation of a highly developed mathematical physics, experimental psychologists have been bogged down in an endless quagmire of trivial problems that are unworthy of their efforts as they struggle toward a mirage of quantitative salvation." Another writer [*8*] refers to "the unflagging pursuit of the five per cent level" in current research. It seems to be no longer respectable to do research that is not presented as testing a hypothesis, no matter how trivial or how subjective or vague the source.

Various Roads to Salvation

We need to remind ourselves that there are various stages of research, and that hypothesis testing is a late stage. In general in the behavioral sciences we have not yet reached this stage. Research does not begin with, but ends with, the testing of hypotheses. Smith, Bruner, and White [*14*] point out that "in the development of a science there is a strategy of discovery as well as a strategy of proof. In envy of the precision of method and theory attained by the physical scientists, psychologists and social scientists have in recent years focussed their efforts perhaps too exclusively in the direction of proof." We seem to be attempting to run before we can walk and succeeding in getting nowhere fast.

Edwards and Cronbach [*5*], in an article that has been too much neglected, describe four kinds of research: technique (or instrument) research; survey research; administrative (or applied) research; and critical research. It should be evident that we still have much to do in the first two areas. I would put survey research before instru-

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ment research as a stage, although they overlap and interact. Survey research is exploratory. Its purposes are to identify variables which are apparently significant or pertinent and to provide a source for theory and hypotheses. Theories and hypotheses do not spring full blown from the head of the scientist. They must be based upon observation, which is the first stage of science, and this is essentially what survey research is. We cannot shortcircuit the process by omitting this stage. It is not only important; it is necessary. We should not be ashamed that we are engaged in this type of research. It is just as much science as the testing of hypotheses. As Edwards and Cronbach [*5*] note, ". . . clinical research is now in need of good hypotheses to test, rather than of finer tests of hypotheses . . . . Thus the critical experiment depend (s) for (its) effectiveness on the adequacy of the technique research and survey research which precedes (it). The experiment confirms or denies specific hypotheses, but the experimental design does not produce hypotheses."

Technique research is important because it provides the instruments to be used in critical research. The variables which are identified in survey research must be specified, defined, and quantified or measured reliably and validly. The lack of reliable and valid measures of pertinent and significant variables is one of the bottlenecks in critical research today.

This leads to a more specific consideration of problems in research involving evaluation of changes in the behavior of individuals. The most common form of problem is the evaluation of the effects of treatment methods. This problem is the basic one in medical research, education, counseling, and psychotherapy, as well as in agriculture. These fields differ in the complexity of the problem in terms of the number of factors involved and the possibility of manipulation or control of the factors. These differences are perhaps related to the number of positive results obtained in reported research.

There are some problems of design which are common to many areas and warrant discussion, and since these problems have been discussed most extensively in the literature on counseling and psychotherapy, I shall draw upon this source. Some of these problems can be dismissed with little more than mentioning; others require more detailed discussion.

Sampling

The problem of sampling is one that has been too much ignored in research in clinical fields. The usefulness of a particular research study is based upon the generalizability of its conclusions. It is elementary that generalization can only be made to subjects from the same population sampled in the study. Yet most studies include subjects who are not samples from any clear population but are usually those who are available. Thus the results are limited to the undefined, ambiguous population represented by the sample. As a consequence, when the study is repeated on different samples, results are not confirmed. This could not occur as frequently as it does if the assumption of representative sampling upon which the statistical tests are based had been met [*16*]. Most samples, then, are not representative but are in important respects peculiar to the institution or setting in which the research is done.

Random sampling alone is not the answer to sampling problems, as many have erroneously assumed. First, of course, the sampling must be of a known, defined or identified population. This population must be one which includes more than the clients of one agency or institution if the results are to be useful to others. Thus, if a random sample of clients from one institution is used in a study, it must be demonstrated that the clientele of this institution is similar to, or from the same population as, those from other institutions, or randomness does not assure generalizability to other institutions. Again, when very small samples are used, random selection will not necessarily assure representativeness, unless the population is highly homogeneous. Nor will it assure equivalence of control and experimental groups. Matching

should be used in such cases, though matching introduces certain problems [*9, 15*].

The inadequacy of random sampling is particularly marked in highly heterogeneous populations. Small samples from a population consisting of a wide variety and degrees of disability are not likely to be representative. Nor are they likely to provide us the most information about the results of treatment, since the effects may vary with type and severity of disability. As Edwards and Cronbach [*5*] note, "It is far more desirable to study 10 cases, two each of five identifiable subtypes, than to study a pool of 50 undescribed and undifferentiated people." Thus, it is necessary to break up large heterogeneous populations, such as disabled clients, into homogeneous subpopulations, which are then separately sampled. "If it is necessary to restrict a study to a single condition or situation, and to a few subjects, the results will have maximum value when the situation is described in detail and the subjects are selected to be homogeneous on as many . . . variables as possible" [*5*].

When we are dealing with interpersonal situations such as counseling and psychotherapy, we should be concerned about the sampling of counselors as well as of clients. The results can be generalized only to counselors similar to those used in the experiment. One of the defects of many studies in counseling and psychotherapy is the use of inexperienced student counselors. This may account to some extent for the lack of results. But it also means that the results—or lack of them—cannot be generalized to trained, experienced counselors. This defect is present in a recent series of studies of the effects of different approaches to psychotherapy [*1*] and is discussed in the APA research in psychotherapy symposium [*12*].

Another aspect of sampling of counselors is the attitude of the counselor toward the method of treatment. If, as in the study referred to above, the counselors prefer one method of treatment to another but are required to apply both, the study tells nothing about the results which might be obtained by counselors who had a different attitude toward the method.

Controls

The problem of controls is particularly difficult when dealing with the treatment of human beings. Although we may have no evidence for the efficacy of treatment, we are reluctant to withhold treatment from a control group. This is particularly true in counseling and psychotherapy where, although there is no irrefutable evidence of its effectiveness, at least of an experimental nature, there is an accumulation of clinical and experiential evidence that cannot be ignored. It seems almost unbelievable, perhaps, that doing something is not better than doing nothing. The spontaneous remission argument is unconvincing, as Cartwright [*3*] has shown. Investigators have thus not used the design in which treatment is denied to a random or a matched control group. This has probably been an unnecessary and unwise restriction [*2*], since in medical practice, as for example in the study of the Salk polio vaccine, this method was used and accepted by the public.

The setting up of control groups which are random or matched for all pertinent variables except one, the desire or motivation for treatment, can provide no crucial tests of the effectiveness of treatment, since this is one of the most significant variables in psychological treatment.

It has been suggested that there is no substitute for separate, equated experimental-control group design in which treatment is withheld from the control group [*2, 9*]. However, this is not necessarily the case. There are several methods by which the results of treatment can be evaluated without the use of this design.

One approach is through the use of a delayed treatment group. In this design, one group is accepted for immediate treatment, and another group is placed on a waiting list. Then the treated group is compared with the wait group at the end of an equal period of time. This is actually not a substitute for, but a modification of the traditional design. For short treatment periods it is useful, but it is limited, since treatment cannot be withheld indefinitely if

for no other reason than that the applicants go elsewhere for treatment or disappear. There is perhaps a complicating factor present in that acceptance for and expectation of treatment may have positive effects. Nevertheless, actual treatment should be more effective than these factors.

A second approach is the own-control design. Here a group is evaluated and then enters a waiting period, followed by another evaluation, a treatment period, and then a third evaluation. Calvin [2] has criticized this method not only because it does not conform to the traditional separate control group method but because of the possibility of spontaneous remission as a result of time. But as Cartwright [3] has pointed out, such change with time (though it is not spontaneous but merely of unknown origin) occurs during therapy as well as before and after therapy. Therefore, a comparison of change during therapy with that occurring before, and perhaps after therapy, provides evidence of the effect of treatment. Cartwright notes [3] that there are numerous instances of specific effects following introduction of specific treatments which it would be sheer improbability to attribute to coincidental spontaneous recovery.

A third method is the differential treatment of groups in terms of the therapeutic contact. Treatment may be varied in terms of frequency and duration of treatment periods and the differential effects studied. Imber, Frank, Nash, Stone, and Gliedman [7] utilized this method and propose it as an alternative to the use of no-treatment controls.

The problem of controls has another aspect which is tied in with the problem of treatment variables. Treatments may vary not only quantitatively but qualitatively. Many treatment situations are complex. And as has been suggested above, there is often an interaction between variables in the treatment situation, as for example between counselor attitudes toward treatments and the treatment method used. An example of a complex treatment situation is the study by Stotsky, et al. [16] where several approaches were used with chronic schizophrenics to improve their vocational adjustment. The effects of such a complex treatment program cannot be attributed to any of the specific factors but only to the total. It is therefore necessary to break the treatment situation down into measurable components and to apply them to different groups. If sufficient numbers of clients are not available for equated groups, or if it is impractical to set up such a design for other reasons such as an ongoing program of treatment with no possibility of denying treatment to some clients, what Shontz [13] calls the additive and subtractive methods can be used. These are, of course, the familiar methods of Mills. In these approaches, specific treatments or techniques can be added to or subtracted from the basic or common method, and the ensuing results noted. This method is useful where specific treatments are not independent and where it is desired to compare combinations of treatments.

The Criterion Problem

A third major problem area in evaluation is the criterion. Whether a method of treatment is effective or not depends upon the criterion. A method may be effective in terms of one criterion but not for another. This is one of the confusions in the study of the effectiveness of counseling and psychotherapy. There are many different possible criteria. Furthermore, they may not be closely related [4]. Some of them may be negatively related, at some levels of a non-linear total relationship, to independence. It thus is not wise, nor desirable, to attempt to combine specific criteria into a composite. Multiple criteria should be used.

In addition to the difficulty of selecting and defining criteria, there is the problem of measuring them reliably and validly. The lack of such measures is probably a major reason for the negative results in studies evaluating the effectiveness of counseling and psychotherapy. Here is obviously a place where technique research is necessary before we can go on to more critical research.

We may summarize by noting the following points. (1) We need more survey and exploratory research to identify pertinent or relevant variables and to serve as a source of meaningful and significant hypotheses. Such studies are part of science and should not be belittled or considered inferior to the so-called rigorous testing of a minor, insignificant, or unimportant hypothesis unrelated to any theory. (2) We need more technique research to provide reliable and valid instruments for use in hypothesis testing research. (3) We need to recognize that there are other research designs which can contribute to the evaluation of the effectiveness of treatment besides the traditional one of a treated experimental and an untreated control group.

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NEW LEAFLET FOR PARENTS OF EPILETIC CHILDREN

You, Your Child & Epilepsy is a new leaflet for parents of children with epilepsy. Published by the Federal Association for Epilepsy, the pamphlet was written by Dr. John Nardini, Chief of Neuropsychiatry for the U. S. Navy, and Miss Genevieve O'Leary, Chief Psychiatric Social Worker at Childrens Center of the Catholic University of America. While aimed primarily at parents, the pamphlet will also be helpful to social workers, public health nurses, physicians, teachers, psychologists, and others who come in contact with family problems.

Single copies are available to individuals without charge. Agencies and organizations may obtain bulk copies free for distribution to staff personnel and the public. Requests should be addressed to Federal Association for Epilepsy, 1729 F Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

Organization of Guidance for Gifted Children

J. C. GOWAN

THEORETICALLY and practically, education for the ablest students is best viewed as a natural outcome of good guidance services which stress individualization of education. Yet, because the pupil personnel area has been the last major educational area to develop maturity and status, there is a tendency, even among adherents of education for the gifted, to view guidance as an afterthought. Since the beginnings of the guidance movement some 50 years ago, development in guidance has shown the trends of (1) extending the scope of guidance far beyond vocational concepts to include all aspects of childhood and developmental tasks; (2) proliferating the counselor's tools, especially in testing; and (3) moving toward a more global and clinical analysis of people and their problems.

Special Problems of the Gifted

Side by side with these developments has come a growing consciousness of the importance of guidance for the gifted. Just as it was once thought that the able needed no curriculum modifications, so it has been said that they are bright enough to find their way unaided by guidance services. What is conveniently forgotten is that the able may have special problems, which it takes individual guidance to handle. Some of these may be:

1. They may be faced with an embarrassment of riches in trying to make wise occupational and educational choices.
2. There may be problems attendant upon upward social mobility.
3. They may become aware of developmental tasks before they have the physical resources to solve them.
4. They may have more need than usual to develop the specialized interests which go with certain professional occupations.
5. There may be problems connected with the lack of adult model figures.

One of the problems which many gifted youngsters face in connection with guidance has been expressed with some humor by a gifted student as the perennial question of "How far out beyond the safety railing can I lean without going over the cliff?" Gifted students are bright enough to know that they deviate in characteristics considerably from the norms and to see that, in consequence, many generalizations that apply to the average student do not apply to themselves. The problem for them is to discriminate between those situations which apply equally to all persons, regardless of ability, and those which apply to them only with diminished force. For example, the gifted student frequently finds that he can take one or two courses in excess of the requirements and that he does not need this or that prerequisite. It takes a wise counselor to help him discriminate between those experiences he can safely telescope and those that he should undertake in as full measure as the next student.

A comprehensive statement about guidance for the gifted has yet to be written. Practically nothing exists about guidance for the able where (1) the word *guidance* is used in its specific and not in its generic sense, and (2) where the article has been written by a practicing expert in the field. Often the term guidance is used generically to include the whole of education, and a

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series of generalities results. Another difficulty is that few guidance people have had specific experiences with the able, and as a result there are few articles on guidance for the gifted written from a professional point of view.

Burnside [*2*] in a thoughtful article noted five points in a guidance program for able children as follows: (1) early recognition; (2) a challenging educational program; (3) individual counseling; (4) guidance for parents; and (5) community cooperation. Bowman and others [*1*] describe the Quincy Project in a booklet called *Studying Children and Training Counselors in a Community Program* which has guidance value. Passow [*8*] in an article regarding counseling on the college level has discussed the problem and application of guidance for the gifted in higher education. The guidance implications of the J.H.S. 43 Project in New York City, where massive guidance procedures are being used to upgrade motivation in a culturally deprived area, are reported by Wrightstone [*11*]. Strang [*9*] is the only writer who has provided guidance materials to be given directly to the gifted child himself.

Probably the best over-all view of guidance for the able, and one of the few exceptions to the strictures noted earlier in that it is written by a guidance expert and is also specific, is the Rothney and Koopman chapter in the *National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook* [*6*]. In many respects this is the best statement to be found anywhere at the present time. The authors declare:

> Guidance for the gifted varies from the usual primarily in these respects:
>
> 1. Educational and occupational opportunities for the gifted are usually of greater proportion than for others.
>
> 2. Gifted pupils become ready for self-appraisal and self-conceptualization at higher levels and at earlier ages.
>
> 3. Gifted children may be subject to unusual pressures by parents, teachers, peers, and others.

A Part of a Total Program

Despite the lack of guidance for the able, a large number of writers are on record in favor of it. Passow, Goldberg, and Tannenbaum [*7*] point out the need of adequate guidance in any curriculum adjustments for the gifted. Dement [*5*] finds in a follow-up study that highly endowed students feel the lack of counseling, especially in the areas of self-assessment, vocational information, human relations, and personal philosophy. Traxler [*10*] notes that pupil personnel services become more and more important as our schools grow larger. The National Education Association Conference on the Academically Talented Student [*3*] states: "Guidance in the broadest and deepest sense of the term is essential for the adequate development of the academically talented." The writer, after a careful survey of programs for gifted children, has yet to find a program that is not the outcome of a strong guidance group in the system or a strongly guidance minded individual. Good programs for gifted children grow out of (1) good school systems well supported by the public with (2) good administrators who foster democratic relationships and (3) good guidance practices. The former (gifted child programs) is always the effect, never the cause, of the latter.

Just as a good program for the able is a natural outcome of a good guidance program in general, a good guidance program in turn is a natural outcome of an intelligent and democratically oriented school administration. It is impossible to reverse the process. *Concern for the qualities of exceptional human beings arises out of an exceptional concern for the qualities of all human beings.*

The function of guidance workers at the different grade levels will differ somewhat as being more concerned with identification in the grades and more concerned with placement in the senior high school. What is not sufficiently appreciated at present is that guidance must be integrated throughout the system and that guidance in the grades is as valuable as guidance in the high school. No elementary school should be without the services of a full-time counselor. The gifted in elementary school face special problems in not being challenged by the curriculum and in failing to find

friends who are age mates. Thus twin developmental tasks of industry and socialization, plus problems of identification, home, and environmental difficulties can be cleared away with minimal difficulty if counseling help is available. But if allowed to run unchecked, another gifted underachiever is too likely to be delivered to the high school.

The major function of the guidance person working with the able youth is twofold, first to assist in personality development and the removal of emotional or environmental handicaps, and second to aid and advise in the maximizing of achievement and college placement which will facilitate his progress to a professional career. Both of these matters are complex enough to require separate analysis and hence will not be developed here. It should be emphasized, however, that these tasks should be prosecuted with positive, aggressive action in place of the all too current passivity about able youth which infects many guidance offices. It is not enough to measure the function of the guidance office against the comparison of the mental health and scholastic achievement of these able youngsters against the norms; instead we should strive to prepare these outstanding representatives for the really grueling task ahead of them. If our intellectual leaders are to keep pace and be found in the frequencies demanded by modern conditions, we need to deliver a much higher percentage of our able youth not only to the door of the university, but insure that they have the motivation and mental health to graduate. This means a program of college-going for able youth involving the encouragement, the motivation, the strengthening of curriculum, and the upbuilding of achievement on a level not approached by our high schools at present. It means a change of attitudes in students, teachers, parents, and the public regarding the importance of high school scholarship, the desirability of taking more than four "solids" per year, the need for new prestige symbols in adolescent groups, the decrease of community anti-intellectualism, the fostering of the conservation principle in young human talent—all matters of social values with which the guidance worker is concerned. While these issues are matters of community concern, they can be raised and fought for if professional educators are truly social leaders. A program for scholarship in the senior high school extending through the three years, not just the senior year, with prestige and other rewards for the participants and with good publicity regarding effective college placement and the various scholarships and awards which come to students is one way of starting such a program. Needless to say, such a job is a full-time task in the average high school and can scarcely be accomplished if the counselor is so burdened with the problems of the lower 10 per cent that he has no time for the able.

The Counselor's Role

Characteristics of the counselor for the gifted youngster may be briefly summarized. Wide cultural background with superior scholarship may be taken for granted. In addition to successful teaching experience and an absorbing interest in children, the counselor should have professional training, being well grounded in testing, statistics, education of the able, psychology, and interviewing techniques. The counselor, compared to the teacher of the gifted, should be even more permissive, intraceptive, non-directive, and non-authoritarian and should be eminently capable of playing the adult figure model role for these bright charges.

What kind of counseling works best with the gifted? Obviously, not the directive variety. The able are independent-minded and want to figure out problems for themselves. This is not to say that they will not need and even demand information. They are usually more effective than the average in evaluation of their own position. The counselor, therefore, should distinguish between providing information and providing decisions. It is not directive to provide the former, but it is directive to provide the latter.

The able student is often more able to profit much more from the inspection of his own test results than the average youth, and

the counselor need feel few qualms about giving him considerable test information. It will come as no shock to the bright child to find that he is able, nor is it likely to make him boastful or vainglorious. The counselor can do the youth a valuable service by pointing out specific, relative weakness as clues either for remedial work or for college or career planning. A gifted child who is at the 75th percentile of his grade in reading skill needs remediation; another who has A's in all senior subjects, but with an ACE score on the 99th percentile in linguistic areas and the 88th percentile in numerical areas needs to be apprized of his problem before he elects M.I.T. or C.I.T.

Counselors working with the able will need to take special precautions against counselor involvement. It is very easy to identify with these youngsters, and resultant counter-transference phenomena may obscure detailed consideration of the youngster's real problems. In such a situation the counselor is very apt to push the youth toward his occupational or educational bias, forgetting that a counselor unlike a teacher is not looking for disciples. Another easy mistake to make in counseling with the gifted is to be misled by the general halo effect of good grades, sound attitude, and other positive aspects. It is important to remember that these youngsters are preparing for top-level competition against far more difficult college and graduate standards than they are ever likely to meet in high school. The counselor who does not provide the gifted student with some prognosis of the problems which he may face in the future is doing him no service. Another special difficulty often encountered with the able is that of keeping grades and morale up until the gifted and sometimes temperamental youth can get away to college. With some of these talented underachievers, it is almost a race to see if they can make college before their environmental frustrations sidetrack them completely. Sometimes, the form book of grades and deportment needs to be thrown away, and a college encouraged to take a chance on the wild talents of some fiery non-conformist.

While guidance should be a continuous process throughout school, there are some critical junction points where lack of guidance may shunt the gifted onto the wrong track. Especially, at the ninth and twelfth grades, the efforts (or lack of them) of the guidance worker to locate all the able youth, despite poor grades and lower socioeconomic status is crucial. In the ninth grade all of these youngsters should be strongly encouraged to take an academic college-preparatory program, and at the twelfth grade all of them should be encouraged to go on to college.

The importance of guidance generally, and its integration in the school system is nowhere better illustrated than by Conant [4] in *The American High School,* a volume destined to become an educational bible. It is significant that nearly half his recommendations concern guidance matters directly, and over a quarter pertain to the progress of the academically talented.

Counselor and Faculty

While the counselor for the able has the major responsibility for their guidance, he cannot be expected to function alone. He needs cooperation from the principal, staff members, and teachers. On the part of the teachers, this cooperation includes, besides consultation with counselors, the ability, skill, and presence of mind to make referrals promptly when able students are not performing properly. On the part of other staff members, such cooperation includes communication, so that the coordination of the special program may blend harmoniously with that of general education. Cooperation with curriculum personnel is especially important. The principal can help by understanding and support of the guidance role and by not confusing this function with that of errand boy, disciplinary assistant, stool pigeon, or substitute teacher. The proper relationship between administrator and personnel worker is somewhat like that between the commander of a military unit and its chaplain. The counselor should have "noncombatant" status. Other needs which the administrator can help supply include office space with privacy for interviewing, a budget and workload which

are realistic, tests and supplies, an information library, and the appreciation that pupil personnel work embraces something more than programming.

It goes without saying that every guidance program should have the funds and staff to conduct a continuous follow-up of its able students. In the first place no other group can acquaint the administration so well of the benefits and weaknesses of the program. Second, the community deserves and needs to have an accounting of how well its able graduates are doing in college. Proper publicity on this score will do much to ensure that public support for guidance will be forthcoming. Finally, no other group is so likely in later years to bring credit to the school and the community, and these youngsters should not be lost.

The feed-back process from able students constitutes probably the most important and intelligent evaluation a school can make of its services. The administrator who is able to employ this procedure will find that the feedback from these youngsters even while in school will be helpful. The administrator who makes it a policy to find out "how guidance feels" about a school problem can save himself many headaches and gain a reputation for ideas which are likely to make his administration highly successful.

Proper guidance for the able is not a luxury, but a necessity of American cultural life. The organization of adequate programs of guidance for the academically talented awaits only the demands of the districts and the efforts of educational personnel. It is time for us all to come to a realistic appraisal of the importance of guidance programs for all youth in the procedures of general education and in the specific problems of the able. In no other way shall we meet the problem of achievement and productivity, which appears to be in the process of becoming the central educational issue of the mid-20th Century.

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NURSING LEAGUE ISSUES STATEMENT ON EDUCATION

"Opportunities for Education in Nursing," a statement recently issued by the National League for Nursing, is designed to promote understanding of nursing education and of how today's nursing education system is geared to producing the levels of personnel required by modern nursing services. Listing and describing educational programs in the nursing field, the statement may be obtained free of charge from the National League for Nursing, 10 Columbus Circle, New York 19, New York.

Identifying College Dropouts with the Minnesota Counseling Inventory

FREDERICK G. BROWN

One of the perplexing problems faced by college personnel workers is the identification of students who, though possessing adequate scholastic aptitude, drop out of college. Variables such as socio-economic status, study habits, achievement motivation, vocational interests, and personality factors have been investigated and frequently shown to be related to achievement or persistence in college.

Personality factors, particularly, have been widely investigated. One favorite procedure has been to take an item pool and use item analysis procedures to build a scale that discriminates between achievers and non-achievers [*4*]. Recently Drake and Oetting [*3*] have shown that analysis of profile patterns on the MMPI is a fruitful approach to the problem. Both of these methods, however, have the disadvantage of requiring large numbers of subjects for the analyses.

A third method, the one used in this study, involves comparing the mean test profile of dropouts with that of the typical college student. Although probably not as precise as Drake and Oetting's method, it can be used when a relatively small number of students (profiles) are available.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between scores on the Minnesota Counseling Inventory (MCI) and persistence in college.

Procedure

Subjects. Admissions officers at three Minnesota liberal arts colleges supplied lists of students who dropped out of school during the first semester. No attempt was made to separate the students according to the reason for leaving college. They left for various reasons—poor health, financial problems, homesickness, to transfer to another college, and illness in the family. None of the students was dropped by the college for academic reasons.

College A is a coeducational Lutheran college having a total enrollment of about 1,750 students. Colleges B and C are Catholic colleges having enrollments of 800 men and 700 women, respectively.

The test. The MCI is a paper-and-pencil personality inventory designed for use in high schools [*1*]. It has, however, been shown to be useful in a college setting [*2*]. Besides a Validity indicator (*V*) the inventory has seven diagnostic scales: Family Relationships (*FR*); Social Relationships (*SR*); Emotional Stability (*ES*); Mood (*M*); Conformity (*C*); Reality (*R*); and Leadership (*Le*). The first three were derived from scales on the Minnesota Personality Scale and the latter four from the *D, Pd, Sc,* and *Sie* scales, respectively, of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. On all diagnostic scales high scores represent the poor or maladjusted end of the continuum.

At each college the MCI had been administered to all freshmen as part of an orientation testing program. The schools had agreed not to use the tests during the year (1957–1958) so that uncontaminated validity data could be obtained. Thus the MCI scores were not used in any pre-dropout advising or counseling.

Analyses. Means and standard deviations were computed on all MCI scales for both the dropouts and the total freshman population, by sex, of each college. The mean

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TABLE 1

Mean MCI Profiles of Men Dropouts and Average Male Students

		MCI Scale							
		V	*FR*	*SR*	*ES*	*M*	*C*	*R*	*Le*
College A									
Dropouts	Mn	2.6	7.3	17.5	13.3	10.7	13.6	10.9	10.7
(N = 13)	SD	1.7	3.7	12.1	5.2	5.1	3.4	4.1	5.4
Total	Mn	3.7	6.8	15.7	11.6	11.5	11.6	8.2	10.2
(N = 283)	SD	2.2	5.2	12.1	6.2	4.3	3.4	6.2	5.0
	t	1.78	0.37	0.54	1.01	0.69	2.15	1.62	0.39
	p	...	...	...	...	...	0.05	...	...
College B									
Dropouts	Mn	4.3	7.8	15.4	10.8	12.3	12.7	8.7	9.5
(N = 32)	SD	2.3	4.8	10.6	4.7	3.5	3.5	6.0	4.6
Total	Mn	3.9	7.8	16.8	11.0	11.8	11.9	8.7	10.4
(N = 280)	SD	2.2	5.5	11.4	6.1	4.4	3.6	6.1	5.2
	t	1.14	0.01	0.71	0.28	0.73	1.29	0.02	0.99
	p	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

scores for the dropouts were then compared to the mean profile of the appropriate college and sex grouping. A formula given by McNemar [5, *p. 100*] which compares the subgroup with a total group containing the subgroup and allows for the fact that the two means are not based on independent groups was used. As no hypothesis was made as to the direction of the mean differences, *i.e.,* whether the dropouts would score higher or lower than the average student, a two-tailed test of significance was used.

Results

The results of the analyses are presented in Tables 1 and 2.

In one men's group (College B) the dropouts did not differ significantly on any scale from the typical male student at the college. In the other college (College A) the dropout profile was elevated on several scales but only the *C* scale was significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) than for the average student.

In both women's groups the entire profile of the dropout group was elevated above the

TABLE 2

Mean MCI Profiles of Women Dropouts and Average Female Students

		MCI Scale							
		V	*FR*	*SR*	*ES*	*M*	*C*	*R*	*Le*
College A									
Dropouts	Mn	3.8	6.6	20.2	15.4	15.1	11.5	11.5	13.4
(N = 18)	SD	1.5	6.2	13.4	7.2	4.8	2.5	6.2	6.6
Total	Mn	4.2	6.7	17.1	13.4	12.9	10.5	8.7	11.7
(N = 340)	SD	1.9	5.3	11.2	6.4	4.2	3.1	6.2	4.8
	t	0.76	0.14	1.20	1.34	2.34	1.43	1.99	1.56
	p	...	...	...	...	0.05	...	0.05	...
College C									
Dropouts	Mn	3.8	11.4	26.4	17.8	16.2	13.2	14.0	16.3
(N = 16)	SD	2.8	8.2	11.0	7.5	4.4	4.5	8.0	4.6
Total	Mn	4.0	7.9	19.4	14.6	13.3	11.4	9.7	12.1
(N = 275)	SD	2.5	6.2	12.0	6.7	4.6	3.5	6.6	5.3
	t	0.23	2.34	2.40	1.93	2.64	2.10	2.72	3.23
	p	...	0.05	0.05	...	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.01

college norm. In College A, *M* and *R* were the only significant elevations ($p < 0.05$). However in College C three scale elevations (*FR, SR,* and *C*) were significant at the 0.05 level and three others (*M, R,* and *Le*) were significant at the 0.01 level.

Although women dropouts and, to a slight extent, men dropouts obtained elevated profiles, the pattern of significant differences varied between sexes. The typical woman dropout was withdrawn, introverted, depressed, and a social isolate. The typical male dropout, though the results are far from clear-cut, tended to be irresponsible and nonconforming. This pattern of irresponsibility and nonconformity also characterizes college men who become disciplinary problems [2].

Certainly many influencing factors are not precisely controlled in a study of this nature. Even though none of the students left for scholastic reasons, it is possible that some of the dropouts were low on the scholastic aptitude continuum and were having scholastic difficulties. There probably also are differences between students who leave for various reasons. For example, we would not expect students who left because of illness within the family to be similar to those who became homesick or, for that matter, even to represent a homogeneous subgroup.

What the present study does show is that college dropouts, especially women, obtain different scores on a personality inventory than does the average student. This difference is apparent before the student actually enters college. The counselor, when working with a student who has scores similar to the dropout group, should be aware of the implications for the student continuing in college.

Summary

Scores on the Minnesota Counseling Inventory of students who dropped out of college during the first semester were compared to the scores of the typical freshman at three liberal arts colleges. Male dropouts tended to be irresponsible and nonconforming while the typical female dropout was withdrawn and depressed. Although there was a great deal of overlap between the distributions of MCI scores of dropouts and students who remained in college, personnel workers who use the MCI should be aware of the implications of these patterns for persistence in college.

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The article by Father Charles A. Curran "Some Ethical and Scientific Values in the Counseling Psychotherapeutic Process" which appeared in our September, 1960, issue should have carried following footnote: "presented at the APA Convention in 1959 in the symposium on Values and Counseling sponsored by the American Catholic Psychological Association and the Division of Counseling Psychology."—Ed.

FACADE ORIENTATION AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

WILLIAM F. BROWN and NORMAN ABELES

COUNSELORS and guidance workers have long recognized that one of the major disadvantages of personality inventories is that the validity of their scores is limited by the extent of the examinee's willingness to give frank answers. That is the typical personality inventory can be "faked" or "thrown" by the examinee, and the extent of this "throw" is limited only by the amount of the examinee's insight into the psychological meaning of the questions. Such faking or facade is likely to occur whenever the examinee's self-interests would seem to dictate that he present as favorable an impression of himself as possible.

Since it is highly improbable that such faking can be prevented, research has been directed toward detecting facade and estimating what the personality profile would be had facade not been present. Keys purporting to measure the examinee's degree of honesty, objectivity, or defensiveness in answering questionnaire items have been constructed for several personality inventories. Specifically, facade keys have been constructed for the Bernreuter Personality Inventory [*4*], the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey [2], and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory [*3*, *6*].

Construction of these facade keys was motivated by the need for a method to correct for faking on personality questionnaires. The possibility that the facade score itself might be a significant predictor of behavior has received little, if any, attention.

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Research reported by Tiebout [*5*], however, indicates that attitudes of candidness and defensiveness in analyzing their weaknesses were characteristic of academic overachievers and underachievers, respectively. Specifically, low scholarship students were found to exhibit the following three behavioral characteristics in common. First, they tended to gloss over failures and shortcomings and view them in an optimistic light. Second, they tended toward making much too high an appraisal of their net accomplishments. Third, they tended to rationalize their poor record of achievement by blaming poor study habits, a reading disability, etc. In short, Tiebout found that the low scholarship student habitually rationalized or ignored his failures and exaggerated or distorted his successes in order to maintain a favorable impression of himself.

Tiebout's investigation suggested that one major difference between high and low scholarship students might be a motivational orientation toward facade. Such a facade orientation might be conceived as a readiness or willingness to resort to facade in situations where self-interest dictates that one make a favorable impression. Thus high and low scholarship students would be expected to tend, respectively, towards the conservative and liberal poles of a facade orientation continuum.

Because each was an integral part of a particular personality inventory, none of the existing facade keys were considered suitable as a research vehicle for the proposed inquiry. The keyed items dealt with personality traits rather than academic activities and, hence, were not particularly appropriate for testing hypotheses derived from Tiebout's study. Further, it was nec-

essary that testing time be kept to a minimum, and the various personality questionnaires required from 40 to 90 minutes to administer. Therefore, steps were undertaken to develop an independent means for assessing facade orientation.

Method

The vehicle selected for assessing facade orientation was a word knowledge checklist containing three-fourths true words and one-fourth false words. Development of the scale began with the construction of a 100-word checklist. The 25 false words included in the scale were selected from a pool of 140 such words constructed by the author. Selection was based upon the results of a study of the relative frequency that each word was identified as an actual word by a sample of 103 freshman education students at the University of Texas. Told that all but 25 of the 140 words were false words, the students were instructed to place a check mark before the 25 true words. Tabulation of the number of times that each word was checked provided a basis for selecting acceptable words. False words checked as true words by less than 10 per cent or more than 20 per cent of the students were rejected, leaving 39 false words from which 25 were drawn at random. The 75 true words were randomly selected from stimulus words found in the middle third of vocabulary sections included in five representative college entrance examinations.[1] The 25 false and 75 true words were presented in random order, and the examinee was instructed to indicate whether or not he knew the meaning of each word.

Then the 100-word scale was administered to 301 first-semester freshmen at Southwest Texas State Teachers College. In order to identify words that were operating improperly, a tabulation was made of the number of times that each of the 100 words was marked as known. False words indicated as known by less than 10 per cent or more than 30 per cent of the total sample were replaced by new false words; true words marked as unknown by more than 40 per cent or less than 20 per cent of the examinees were replaced by new true words. On the basis of the analysis, 12 replacement false words and 28 replacement true words were selected in the same manner as previously.

The revised 100-word scale was next administered to 190 second-semester freshmen at Tyler Junior College, Tyler, Texas. Another tabulation was made of the number of times that each of the 100 words was marked as known. Using the same criteria for acceptance as in the previous analysis, 5 of the 25 false words and 8 of the 75 true words were discarded. The 20 false words and 60 of the 67 true words passing the selection criteria were assembled into an 80-word Word Knowledge Checklist.[2]

A 60-item Synonym Recognition Test was also constructed by assembling the vocabulary items from which the 60 true words had originally been taken. The 60 stimulus words on the Synonym Recognition Test and the 60 true words on the Word Knowledge Checklist were thus identical. As in the usual vocabulary test, each stimulus word on the Synonym Recognition Test was followed by four choices from which the examinee was to select the one word that was a synonym for the stimulus word. For each item, the correct response was always the most frequently given synonym for the stimulus word while the three distractors were always words having no common meaning with either the stimulus word or the correct response.

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[1] The following five representative college entrance examinations were utilized to provide vocabulary items:

1. Carpenter, M. F., *et al.* *Cooperative English Test Form PM: Usage, Spelling, and Vocabulary.* New York: Cooperative Test Service, 1939.
2. Manuel, H. T., *et al.* *Word-Number Test of Scholastic Aptitude* (Form A). Austin: Steck Co., 1940.
3. Sullivan, E. T., Clark, W. W., & Tiegs, E. W. *California Test of Mental Maturity* (Advanced Level). Los Angeles: California Test Bureau, 1951.
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[2] A copy of the Word Knowledge Checklist may be obtained from the authors.

Three scores were obtained from the Word Knowledge Checklist and the Synonym Recognition Test. The number of false words checked as known on the Word Knowledge Checklist provided one estimate of an individual's willingness to resort to facade in a situation where self-interest dictates that one make a favorable impression. A second estimate of an individual's facade orientation was obtained by tabulating the number of true words checked as known on the Word Knowledge Checklist that were subsequently missed on the Synonym Recognition Test. These two measures of facade orientation will hereafter be referred to as the False Word Count (FWC) and the Vocabulary Knowledge Differential (VKD), respectively. Finally, a Synonym Recognition Score (SRS) was obtained by tabulating the number of correctly answered items on the Synonym Recognition Test.

To test the proposition that high and low scholarship students differ significantly in their orientation toward the use of facade, the two instruments were administered to samples of college freshmen enrolled at two Texas colleges. The two tests were administered to 129 men and 141 women at the University of Texas during regularly scheduled meetings of 12 freshman English sections. The instruments were also completed by 199 men and 213 women enrolled at Southwest Texas State Teachers College during a specially scheduled freshman assembly.

The one-semester point-hour ratio (PHR) was employed as the academic achievement criterion. Due to the skewed score distributions obtained for both the measures of facade orientation, these scores were stanined following the procedure recommended by Cowles and Dailey [*1*]. Since both measures are supposedly indicative of a proneness toward the liberal use of facade, correlations between these scores and the criterion would be expected to be significant and negative in sign if the proposition being tested is supported. Furthermore, both scores should correlate reasonably low with the Synonym Recognition Score if they are to be considered as measures of something other than vocabulary knowledge.

Results

The correlation coefficients obtained between the four measures are reported in TABLE 1 and TABLE 2, respectively, for the University of Texas and Southwest Texas

TABLE 1

Intercorrelations for University of Texas Freshmen

	Men (N = 129)			*Women (N = 141)*		
	*FWC**	*VKD†*	*SRS‡*	*FWC*	*VKD*	*SRS*
PHR§	−0.33	−0.31	0.53	−0.40	−0.37	0.51
FWC	...	0.80	−0.28	...	0.76	−0.24
VKD	...	...	−0.30	...	...	−0.28

TABLE 2

Intercorrelations for Southwest Texas State College

	Men (N = 199)			*Women (N = 213)*		
	*FWC**	*VKD†*	*SRS‡*	*FWC*	*VKD*	*SRS*
PHR§	−0.31	−0.28	0.46	−0.29	−0.24	0.54
FWC	...	0.72	−0.35	...	0.68	−0.33
VKD	...	...	−0.49	...	...	−0.49

* FWC = False Word Count.
† VKD = Vocabulary-Knowledge Differential.
‡ SRS = Synonym Recognition Score.
§ PHR = Point-Hour Ratio.

State Teachers College samples. For the two college samples, respectively, correlations between the Fake Word Count and the criterion were —0.33 and —0.31 for men and —0.40 and —0.29 for women. The Vocabulary Knowledge Differential and the criterion correlated —0.31 and —0.28 for men and —0.37 and —0.24 for women. For men, correlations between the two facade orientation measures were 0.80 and 0.72; for women, these correlation coefficients were 0.76 and 0.68. Correlations between the False Word Count and the Synonym Recognition Score were —0.28 and —0.35 for men and —0.24 and —0.33 for women.

Conclusions

Three conclusions may be drawn from the research results. First, both experimental facade scores are highly correlated thereby demonstrating that they are largely measuring a common variable. Second, correlations between the facade scores and scores on a vocabulary test indicate that the amount of common variance is relatively low, thus reflecting only a moderate relationship between vocabulary knowledge and performance on the facade measures. Third, facade scores are related significantly and negatively to subsequent academic achievement in college. In short, research results support the proposition that high and low scholarship students are characterized by conservatism or liberalism, respectively, in the use of facade.

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NEW TV SERIES SHOWS GROUP THERAPY IN ACTION

"Road to Reality," a new daily television program, presents the continuing, actual life stories of six persons who seek help from modern group psychoanalysis. Presented Monday through Friday, 2:30–3:30 P.M., on ABC-TV, the series has been endorsed by the Association of Medical Group Psychoanalysts and has been cleared through the American Psychiatric Association and American Medical Society of New York. Under the technical guidance of a committee of fellows and members of the AMGP, the program presents dramatically scenes of group therapy in action. Dr. Edmund Zimon, President of AMGP, states that "millions of television viewers every day will be exposed to an experience which many perhaps have never heard of before. Such a program deserves the interest of the psychiatric profession and all interested laymen."

MORE THAN A DECADE OF TRAINING GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL WORKERS

WILLA NORRIS

IN THE FALL of 1945 a counselor training program known as Institute of Guidance Counseling and Testing was established at Michigan State University. At the close of that first academic year, four individuals had completed the master of arts degree with emphasis in guidance and personnel work and by the end of fall term, 1958, some 12 years later, 379 individuals had completed their master's degree in this training area.

What has happened to graduates of this counselor training program? How many are in jobs of a guidance and personnel nature? How do they evaluate their training program? How can their alma mater continue to serve them? These are just a few of the questions with which the counselor training staff at this institution have been concerned.

Since answers to such questions can be found only by contacting the graduates themselves, a follow-up study using a questionnaire was undertaken in January and February, 1959.

Procedure

The study is based on responses to a questionnaire mailed to 379 persons who had completed a master's degree in guidance since 1946. The questionnaire was mailed in the last week in January and a follow-up to non-respondents was made in February. By the first of March, 1959, 255 responses or 71.5 per cent of the questionnaires had been completed and returned. Six per cent of the questionnaires sent were considered unrecoverable because 18 were returned for "address unknown" and three for "death."

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Who are these graduates in guidance and personnel work? Of the 255 responding (approximately two-thirds men, one-third women), about 31 per cent are under 30 years of age, 42 per cent are between 30 to 40 years, and 27 per cent are over 40. As for marital status, 75 per cent are married, this number representing 88 per cent of the men and 52 per cent of the women.

Approximately 53 per cent of the responses were secured from graduates who had completed their degrees within the last four years.

What were they like when they entered training? When accepted to the program, approximately two-thirds were 30 years of age or under, the mean age being 30 years (30.5). The mean age of females (32.6) was slightly higher than that of males (29.3).

As one would have expected, the greatest number, some 30 per cent, had completed undergraduate majors in education or in education in combination with another subject. The next highest, or 17 per cent, are graduates with a social science major, and the third highest, 14 per cent, had a major in psychology. Others ran the gamut of undergraduate majors from biological and physical sciences (9 per cent), physical education (6 per cent), mathematics (4 per cent), business English (3 per cent) to foreign languages (2 per cent), and agriculture (2 per cent) plus a sprinkling from sociology, home economics, social work, speech, and economics.

Approximately two-thirds responded that their undergraduate work had been completed within the state of Michigan. However, only one-third had completed their bachelor's degree at Michigan State University. At the time they made application for training, three-fourths were living within the state of Michigan.

Slightly more than a third (35 per cent) of these guidance-trained persons who responded stated that their undergraduate scholastic average was "average" (C–C+), whereas 38 per cent said they earned above average grades (B). Approximately 23 per cent said they had a "B+" undergraduate average and four per cent stated their records showed an "A" average.

More than two-thirds (71 per cent) said they started their master's degree within three years of completion of their undergraduate degree whereas approximately a fifth (20 per cent) delayed in starting their graduate work for seven or more years.

In this study, 81 per cent said that they had had some full-time work experience prior to beginning their guidance work. Of those responding the greatest number (44 per cent) had had employment at the elementary, secondary, or college levels prior to beginning their master's degree program.

When asked what time they started thinking about a training program in personnel work, 70 per cent said it was after completion of their bachelor's degree, whereas 30 per cent said it was during their undergraduate days. When this question is related to sex, more men (a third) than women (a fifth) became interested in guidance and personnel work at the undergraduate level.

What factors influenced them to pursue guidance and personnel training? In answer to a multiple-response question listing factors which might have influenced their decision for guidance and personnel training, the following responses in descending order of importance were noted: (1) desire to work with individuals or groups of people (65 per cent); (2) influence of a particular teacher or individual in field (41 per cent); (3) courses in the program sounded interesting (31 per cent); (4) liking for the beginning course in guidance (23 per cent); (5) possibility of becoming a better classroom teacher (23 per cent); (6) desire to get the training and make more money (11 per cent); (7) need to understand self (6 per cent); (8) offer of a job and need for the training (6 per cent).

A training institution always wonders why candidates seek its particular school. When these respondents were asked in a multiple-choice question why they selected Michigan State University as a training institution, approximately 50 per cent checked the two items of "location of main campus" and "reputation of staff." Nearly a third (29 per cent) said that it was suggested by a "friend or employer." Thirteen per cent said they received an offer of financial assistance and 10 per cent checked "desire to work with particular staff member." Eight per cent indicated "extension courses offered in my area."

What was their training program like? Some 61 per cent completed their master's degree within two calendar years with approximately 23 per cent attending school full time in order to complete their degree within one year.

When asked about their scholastic attainment during their master's degree program, 28 per cent responded that they were "average," this meaning that they maintained the required "B" average for fulfilling requirements for the degree. Some two-thirds, or 66 per cent, said their grade point average was above average (3.5) and approximately five per cent said they maintained an "A" average (4.0).

Since the inception of the guidance and counselor training program in 1945, major emphasis has been placed on preparing trainees for positions of a guidance and personnel nature at the public school level (particularly, secondary school) and at college level. In 1954 special requirements were set up in order to train visiting teachers as defined within the state of Michigan. In 1955 those requirements were established in accordance with state and national practices for training vocational rehabilitation counselors. Of those responding to this questionnaire the greatest number (35.3 per cent) reported that they were interested in a general guidance program intended for the full-time, classroom teacher. The second highest number (35.1 per cent) reported that they had majored in high school counseling; the third highest (13.4 per cent) pointed out that they had selected the college personnel

training sequence as their emphasis of training; and the fourth highest (11.5 per cent) checked rehabilitation counseling. Two per cent indicated they had completed the visiting teacher program.

In this period of increased costs of educational services, the question always arises "How was the major part of your graduate work financed?" In a multiple-response question, the responses in descending order of importance were as follows: (1) G.I. Bill (36 per cent); (2) full-time work in field related to guidance (32 per cent); (3) savings (26 per cent); (4) scholarships, fellowships, assistantships, grants, etc. (18 per cent); (5) family (17 per cent); (6) part-time work in field related to guidance (13 per cent); (7) part-time work in field unrelated to guidance (12 per cent); (8) full-time work in field unrelated to guidance (10 per cent); (9) loans (3 per cent).

When asked how many term hours they completed through MSU's off-campus programs, 71 per cent said "No Courses Taken." Nineteen per cent pointed out that they had taken from one to nine hours, however, through off-campus courses.

What are they like today? Education: The adage "once a graduate student, always a graduate student" appears to hold true for respondents in this study. More than half of those responding said that they had completed graduate hours beyond the master's with approximately nine per cent having completed the doctorate and additional 33 per cent stating that they were currently pursuing a doctoral training program. Two hundred and nineteen graduates responded to the question "would you be interested if MSU established a six-year program in guidance (one year of training beyond masters') which would offer a diploma or certificate for advanced graduate study?" Fifty-two per cent answered in the affirmative.

Employment: Some 82 per cent of the respondents are currently employed in a full-time civilian capacity. When asked what relationship their present job has to guidance work, approximately 47 per cent stated that their work is of a guidance and personnel nature; 44 per cent pointed out that their present job is "closely related" and nine per cent stated that their job has "no relationship." Nine per cent classify themselves as graduate students holding full-time or part-time jobs, whereas around eight per cent are housewives either holding part-time or full-time employment. Of those employed in guidance and personnel work, the majority are in school positions.

In a multiple-response item, the respondents were asked to indicate the nature of their present job. In descending order, responses indicated their positions consisted of counseling (46 per cent), teaching (42 per cent), administration (36 per cent), or testing functions (16 per cent) with a fewer number showing work of a consulting (8 per cent), research (5 per cent), or writing (1 per cent) nature.

Apparently these guidance-trained experienced little difficulty in securing employment, as 45 per cent were already employed in guidance and personnel work upon completion of their degree, and another third had a position within six months. Of this number, 50 per cent secured their first job in a high school setting, 21 per cent secured employment in colleges and universities, 11 per cent in some type of governmental agency (federal or state); seven per cent at the elementary school level; four per cent in business and industry; two per cent in hospital or clinics, and two per cent in welfare or service agencies.

By far the majority, some two-thirds, secured their first guidance and personnel positions as well as subsequent jobs on their own efforts, whereas one-third secured assistance through MSU's guidance and counselor training staff or the Placement Service. A third resource for this first job as well as later jobs in guidance was "friends and relatives."

Of those who are currently employed in guidance and personnel work, 50 per cent stated their salary is between \$5,000 to \$7,000; the average for men being \$6,730, for women \$6,230. Considerable variation is found in salaries with a range of from "\$15,000 and over" for one respondent to "under \$4,000" for four respondents. Ap-

proximately 45 per cent make less than $6,000 a year.

Professional Membership and Activities: Of those 199 individuals responding to a question regarding membership in national organizations, 57 per cent said that they belong at present to a professional organization. Ninety-seven individuals indicated that they are currently members of APGA. Divisional membership within APGA were represented as follows: NVGA (55); ASCA (27); ACPA (26); DRC (9). Membership in other national organizations were NRA (8); APA (6); and NAWDC or NASPA (6). When asked if there was a state organization of a guidance and personnel nature in their area, approximately half of those responding (204) said there was one and that they belonged; however, half did not. When confronted with similar questions covering local organizations of a guidance and personnel nature, approximately 24 per cent said that there was a local group and they belonged. Thirty-seven per cent said there was a local group but that they did not belong, whereas 39 per cent said there was no local group.

Twenty-eight of the 255 responding to this question have authored or co-authored articles, pamphlets, or books in the field of guidance and personnel work or have received honors in this area.

What do they think of their training program? With changing emphasis in the

TABLE 1

Responses Made to Adequacy of Master's Degree Training Program in Relation to Guidance and Personnel Responsibilities/Functions

Functions or Responsibilities of Guidance and Personnel Workers	*Adequacy of MSU Training Program*								
	Very Satisfactory		*Satisfactory*		*Should be Strengthened*		*Not Applicable to any Position*		*Total Responses*
	Raw Score	*Per Cent*	*Raw Score*	*Per Cent*	*Raw Score*	*Per Cent*	*Raw Score*	*Per Cent*	*= N**
Competence as a counselor	63	28	108	48	45	20	8	4	224
Competence to gather and organize basic data about pupils (clients)	87	38	99	43	28	12	15	7	229
Competence to help teachers (staff) with pupil (client) problems which the teacher (staff) finds difficult	46	20	105	47	64	28	11	5	226
Competency to establish desirable contacts with parents	55	25	93	42	62	28	14	5	224
Competency to identify and utilize community referral resources	42	19	99	44	72	32	13	5	226
Competency to help teachers (staff) develop instructional materials and activities more closely related to guidance needs of pupils (clients)	31	14	90	41	76	34	25	11	222
Competency to develop orientation activities	77	36	96	44	31	14	13	6	217
Competency to develop placement services	42	20	84	40	57	27	26	13	209
Competency to develop a testing program	80	37	75	34	50	23	15	6	220
Competency to develop pupil personnel records	90	41	96	44	19	9	14	6	219
Competency to develop follow-up services	50	23	102	47	44	21	19	9	215
Competency to gather, organize, and use occupational, educational, and social information	80	36	103	47	26	12	12	5	221
Competency to carry on research and evaluation studies	43	19	91	41	79	35	10	5	223

* Percentages based on N responding.

training program, accompanied by staff changes, no attempt was made to relate respondent's evaluation of their training program to particular years. These graduates were asked to give their reactions as to how satisfied they were that their training at Michigan State University had prepared them for the various functions or responsibilities. For each competency they were asked to respond as follows on a four point scale: (1) very satisfactory; (2) satisfactory; (3) should be strengthened; (4) not applicable to any position held. TABLE 1 lists functions and responses.

When asked, "In what ways can the counselor training staff at Michigan State University be of assistance to you?" approximately 68 per cent stated that they would be interested in changing positions. Many responses, however, qualified their answer as it relates to betterment in salary, size of school system, or location. Less than one per cent of all graduates returning questionnaires gave concrete suggestions as to "other ways" the training staff might be helpful.

Slightly more than one-half (55 per cent) responded to the open-ended question "What other suggestions do you have for improving the training program?" The suggestions made were varied but most often stressed the need for placing greater emphasis on the counseling practicum, internship experience, and courses in testing and statistics. A number emphasized the need for teaching experience prior to taking their training and also for having a strong background in psychology.

Summary

The modal graduate of the Counselor-Training Program at MSU over a 12-year period is a male who was under 30 years old and living in Michigan at the time he entered his master's program. Prior to taking his first graduate course in the program he had completed an undergraduate degree in education with above average grades and had worked one to three years full time. Upon completion of his bachelor's degree he started thinking about majoring in guidance and personnel because his greatest interest was in working with people. He selected MSU because it was accessible to him and because of the "reputation of the staff." Completing the master's degree in less than three years with a "B" plus average, usually financed by means of the G.I. Bill, he emphasized the training program called "General Guidance," meaning that he preferred to continue as a teacher or teacher-counselor upon completion of his guidance training rather than assume full-time guidance responsibilities. Since completing his degree he has taken at least an additional five hours of graduate work and is pursuing a doctorate or would be interested in working toward a six-year program. Employed now on a full-time basis in work of guidance and personnel nature, secured through his own efforts, at a salary of $5,000 to $7,000, he is not too eager to change positions but would be interested in securing a job which paid more money or was more desirably located. Presently, he belongs to a professional organization of a guidance and personnel nature at the national level, but does not belong to a similar one at state or local level. In looking back at his graduate training he feels that the program should be strengthened in the following areas: carrying on research and evaluation studies; developing instructional materials and activities more closely related to guidance and needs of pupils; identifying and utilizing community referral resources; establishing desirable contacts with parents; helping staff with pupil problems which they find difficult; and developing placement services. He was more nearly satisfied with the training program as it helped him to develop pupil personnel records; gather, organize, and use occupational, educational, and social information; gather and organize basic data about pupils, develop follow-up studies; develop orientation activities; counsel students; and develop a testing program. To strengthen the present program he suggests greater emphasis be placed on the counseling practicum and internship as well as courses in testing and statistics. He feels the importance of guidance workers having a good foundation in psychology and testing experience prior to securing their master's degree in guidance.

Survey of Student Attitudes towards Campus Activities at the University of Hawaii

RICHARD A. KALISH and OTOMAR J. BARTOS

AT MOST EDUCATIONAL institutions, the campus activities program is considered an intrinsic part of the academic environment. Usually professional personnel are utilized to supervise and to coordinate the activities; campus morale and eventual alumni support are partly contingent upon the success of this program.

The student leaders and university personnel involved with campus activities are always concerned with the caliber of leadership and participation as well as the basis for lack of participation. Due either to inertia, general disinterest, or campus politics, a relatively few students carry most of the responsibility. This survey was an attempt to investigate attitudes regarding the campus activity program and variables related to leadership and participation.

Review of Relevant Literature

Numerous research studies have been conducted on student leadership and participation, most of them concerned with the personality or intellectual correlates of leadership or participant behavior. These studies have consistently shown that campus leaders receive higher grades than non-leaders [*5, 6*] and have higher academic aptitude test scores [*3, 14*]. Williamson and Hoyt [*15*] found that leaders were more dominant and extroverted, as measured by paper-and-pencil tests.

Similar differences are found between participants and non-participants. Participants receive higher grades [*12*], earn more money after graduation [*7*], and are better adjusted [*11*]. Benson and McMullin [*2*] surveyed college students as to their reasons for participating in campus activities; the first three reasons in order were: meeting people, recreational interests, and intellectual interests.

Several authors have turned their attention to the philosophical and educational bases for campus activities. Mueller [*10*] emphasizes the need for student government to be more democratic than usually is allowed; Knapp [*8*] suggests that a survey of the felt needs of the students is important; and Stroup [*13*] states that an adequate theory of the values of student activities needs to be formulated as a guide for student personnel workers and college authorities. In 1957 Krumboltz [*9*] evaluated the research in a review of the literature. However, no recent studies were located by the authors.

Design of the Project

For this project several types of information were desired: attitudes towards campus activities, types of participation and leadership in activities, degree of information concerning activities, and biographical data. The final survey consisted of the following sections.

1. *Information Test.* The degree to which a student has factual information about campus activities provides a measure of the awareness he has concerning what is happening on campus. A standard type of multiple-choice achievement test concerning campus activities was constructed to

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measure information. Under the supervision of the authors, student leaders outlined the plausible universe of areas in which information might be available, weighting each area according to their perceptions of its importance on campus. On the basis of this outline, specific topics were chosen for test items. The students then constructed the questions; the items were revised by the authors and returned to the students for another check. Then the form, numbering 40 items, was administered to 15 students with varying backgrounds. On the basis of their responses and comments, the form was revised again. The form, now consisting of 25 items, was again submitted to the student leaders before being considered final.

Representative questions were:

5. Which of the following does not receive financial support from ASUH?[1]
   A. Intramural program
   B. Board of Governors activities
   C. Orientation Week
   D. Fraternities and sororities
8. Meetings of the student Senate are open to
   A. any interested person
   B. any student enrolled at the University
   C. any ASUH member
   D. invited guests only
17. *Ka Palapala* comes under the jurisdiction of
   A. the library
   B. the English Department
   C. Board of Publications
   D. *Ka Leo*

From the above questions it may be ascertained that some of the items could be answered without much knowledge of campus (*i.e.*, #5), some were directed at a general awareness (*i.e.*, #8), and some were very specific (*i.e.*, #17).

2. *Latent Attitude Test.* A sentence completion form of 16 items was included to allow a greater degree of freedom of expression than ordinarily contained in attitude scales.

For example:

29. I feel that the Inter-Club Council__________.

31. Students who join fraternities and sororities ____________________.

37. When I read *Ka Leo*________________.

3. *Manifest Attitude Test.* The process for obtaining the Manifest Attitude Test items paralleled that of the Information Test, with student leaders working under the authors' supervision. The purpose of this form was twofold: (1) to learn about attitudes relating to specific organizations and activities, and (2) to obtain an "attitude-towards-activities" score for further analysis.

To achieve the first purpose, a final form of 28 items was obtained (examples are given later in this article) and administered to the entire sample. On the basis of the responses, an item analysis was conducted which selected the 15 items correlating most highly with the total score; these 15 items were scored for the second purpose mentioned above.

4. *Biographical Information Blank.* With the help of the student leaders, the authors devised a form to obtain biographical information. The requested data included sex, age, ethnic group, place of birth, high school graduated, occupation of father, education of father, a list of all activities since entering the university, the number of semesters active, leadership positions held, and so forth.

Not included on the blank, but obtained later, were the grade-point ratios and entrance examination scores (American Council on Education, Psychological Examination for College Freshmen, and the Ohio State University Psychological Test).

Description of Sample and Procedures

Undergraduate students beyond the freshman year in full-time attendance at the University of Hawaii constituted the universe for this study. A sample of 150 was chosen by the use of a table of random numbers (approximately a five per cent sample). Seventy-five students responded to the first notice to take the form at a designated time and place; the remainder needed to be contacted by mail, telephone calls, and personal follow-up. A total of 147 of the chosen sample were eventually surveyed. The sample matched the universe very

[1] Associated Students of the University of Hawaii.

closely in several verifiable ways, *e.g.*, the same proportion of men and women were contained in the sample as in the universe; the proportion of students attending each of the several colleges at the university varied not more than three percentage points from the sample to the universe.

There are certain conspicuous differences between the student body at the University of Hawaii and comparable mainland state university groups. For example, 85 per cent of the Hawaii students are of Asian ancestry and 13 per cent consider themselves Buddhists. However, the ways in which they are similar to other student bodies are considerably more impressive. Of the sample, 96 per cent were born in the United States (almost nine-tenths of this group in Hawaii), and 99 per cent were educated in public and private schools of the United States. The educational level of the parents of the students is similar to the educational level of the general United States population [1]. Dole [4] was able to state that "a variety of local studies of interest, aptitude, achievement, and personality suggest that (University of Hawaii students) are, in general, psychometrically similar to mainland student populations in land grant universities."

Nature of Activities

Most of the students had, at one time or another, participated in some form of extracurricular activity on campus, while two individuals listed as many as 10 different activities. The total number of activity-semesters (obtained by assuming that participation in one activity for one semester equals one unit) ranged from zero to 24. (See TABLE 1.)

The type of activities in which the students participated are also of importance.

1. Athletic activities (15 per cent of the sample participated)—*e.g.*, intramural sports, team sports
2. Creative activities (7 per cent)—*e.g.*, chorus, dramatics, art
3. Political activities (26 per cent)—*e.g.*, ASUH senate, class office, UN Model Assembly, ASUH committees
4. Professional activities (37 per cent)—*e.g.*, Teachers College Club, Psychology Club, Agriculture Club
5. Publishing activities (6 per cent)—*e.g.*, *Ka Leo, Asterisk, Campus Directory*
6. Religious organizations (42 per cent)—*e.g.*, YMCA, YWCA, Young Buddhists Association, Newman Club
7. Social organizations (26 per cent)—*e.g.*, fraternities and sororities

TABLE 1

Degree of Participation

Number of Activities	*Frequency* %	*Frequency* *N*	*Number of Activity-Semesters*	*Frequency* %	*Frequency* *N*
0	27	40	0	27	40
1	20	29	1	5	7
2	20	29	2	13	19
3	11	16	3	3	5
4	7	10	4	9	13
5	6	9	5	7	11
6	4	6	6	5	7
7–10	5	8	7	5	7
			8	7	10
			9	3	4
			10–11	5	7
			12–13	4	6
			14–18	5	7
			19–24	3	4
TOTAL	100	147		101	147

In order to determine whether the differences in popularity among the various types of activities were significant, tests of significance (significance of differences between percentages) were conducted. TABLE 2 presents levels of significance.

TABLE 2

Matrix of Significance of Differences between Classifications of Activities (Number in the cell refers to level of significance)

	Athl.	*Creat.*	*Polit.*	*Profes.*	*Publ.*	*Rel.*	*Soc.*
Athletic	X						
Creative	0.05	X					
Political	0.05	0.01	X				
Professional	0.01	0.01	0.05	X			
Publishing	0.05	No	0.01	0.01	X		
Religious	0.01	0.01	0.01	No	0.01	X	
Social	0.05	0.01	No	No	0.01	0.01	X

The most noteworthy feature seems to be the high degree of participation in religious and professional organizations, both of them attracting significantly more followers than most of the other types of activities. At the same time, the low degree of participation in the creative and publishing activities achieves consistent statistically significant differences.

Since no criterion for participation was advanced, it is probable that many of the indicated affiliations were nominal in nature. It is interesting to note that 47 per cent of the students participated for no more than three activity-semesters. Since a sophomore, by nominal membership in one activity, could easily have credited himself with three activity-semesters and one activity, up to nearly one-half the campus may have avoided any real participation.

Leadership. Inevitably only a small portion of students have had campus leadership positions. Of the sample group, 19 per cent indicated leadership posts of primary importance to their organization, such as club officer, ASUH senator, publication editor, and so forth; an additional 19 per cent received leadership opportunity in secondary positions, such as committee chairmen. Thus 62 per cent of the students had no campus leadership experiences.

Opinions on Campus Activities

In order to obtain a picture of how the students felt regarding the present campus activity program, the survey contained 28 Likert-type attitude items. These covered the operations and administration of the ASUH itself, the publications, and various organizations operating under the ASUH.

The ASUH as a Governing Body. As can be seen from Table 3, items 1, 2, and 3, the ASUH leadership was fairly well accepted by the student respondents. Of the three leadership groups, *i.e.*, ASUH leaders, class officers, and student senators, the senators received the greatest vote of confidence, while the class officers had the largest percentage of students questioning their effectiveness.

Considering that the campus has a reputation for being disinterested in student activities, the fact that the students discriminated among the three groups of leaders is important. It might indicate that at least a passive interest is involved; it might also indicate that the group coming closest to a peer group, the class officers, are the most criticized. On the other hand, the class offices may be positions of less prestige than the others, and, therefore, may not receive the same quality candidates or the same student support.

To most students, ASUH is aloof and apart. Item 4 shows that a large proportion of students would not bother to walk into the ASUH offices, while Item 5 points to the belief that ASUH is controlled by a clique. Whether or not the leaders of ASUH have done anything to deserve their reputation, such beliefs may go a long way to destroying the possible feelings of identification and involvement which are necessary to the successful operation of a student government.

ASUH Member Organizations. The most criticized organization on campus was the Inter-Club Council. Less than one-third of the sample felt that they did a good job. The United Nations Model Assembly received a low degree of support because so many students knew nothing about it. On the positive side of the ledger were the responses to the number of activities and the status of fraternities and sororities.

Faculty and Administration. The faculty and administration (Items 10, 11, and 12) received what appeared to be a definite acceptance for their roles in student activities. The respondents did not feel that student activities were overregulated and did feel that the faculty and administration were interested and useful in regard to student organizations.

Campus Sources of Information. A high percentage of respondents indicated that they did not feel well informed about campus activities. At the same time, well over half the students stated that they would participate more if they had more information (Items 13 and 14). Whether this lack of information resulted from inadequate sources or inadequate motivation to find out, the felt lack still exists.

Relationship Among Variables

In addition to information related to specific activities, relationships among seven major variables were investigated. The variables, discussed in more detail earlier in this paper, were: (1) Academic Aptitude, as measured by the Ohio State Psychological Examination (OSPE); (2) Academic Achievement, as measured by the grade-point ratio; (3) Participation, as measured by the gross number of different activities the student listed (other measures of participation were analyzed, but this provided the most satisfactory measure); (4) Leadership, measured on a three-point scale; (5) Information, measured by the Information Test; (6) Interest, measured by a four-point scale on frequency of reading the campus newspaper; (7) Favorableness, as measured by the Manifest Attitude Scale.

The 17 distinct hypotheses, all to be

TABLE 3

Percentage of Responses to Attitude Scale Items Related to Campus Activities

Wording of Item[1]	*% Agree*[2]	*% Disagree*	*Significant Difference**
1. In your opinion, do the best qualified people usually become class officers?	42	56	No
2. In general, do you feel the leadership provided by the ASUH has been good or excellent?	58	34	No
3. Do you feel that the UH senators are good and efficient legislators?	60	22	0.01
4. If you had a problem or suggestion for the ASUH, would you feel free to walk into their offices and talk with someone about it?	42	52	No
5. Do you think that the ASUH is controlled by a few students and that an outsider has little chance of influencing student activities?	62	31	0.06
6. Does the Inter-Club Council, in your opinion, do a good job of promoting better relations among the clubs on campus?	35	47	No
7. Do you believe the United Nations Model Assembly was successful?	46	11	0.01
8. Do you feel the number of clubs and activities on campus is appropriate?	59	23	0.05
9. Do you feel that fraternities and sororities at the UH campus serve a useful purpose?	72	24	0.01
10. Do you think the Bureau of Student Activities and the UH Administration tries to regulate student activities too much?	17	69	0.01
11. Do you think faculty and administration are really interested in student activities?	69	27	0.01
12. Do you think that, in general, the faculty advisers are helpful to student organizations with which they work?	79	11	0.01
13. Do you feel that you are well informed about what is happening on the UH campus?	14	86†	0.01
14. If you had more information about the current student activities, do you think you would participate more?	65	29	0.05

[1] In some instances, slight changes in wording have been made from the original.
[2] % Agree combines "Strongly agree" and "Agree" responses; % Disagree is computed similarly.
* Chi-square, computed from raw data, between those agreeing and those disagreeing.
† Includes those who feel "Fairly well informed."

tested by statistical correlations, were broken down into four categories. It was hypothesized that

A. Academic Aptitude would be significantly related to variables of Leadership, Participation, Information, Attitude, and Interest.

B. Academic Achievement would be significantly related to the variables of Leadership, Participation, Information, Attitude, and Interest.

C. Information would be significantly related to the variables of Participation, Leadership, Interest, and Attitude (also see A and B).

D. Interest would be significantly related to the variables of Participation, Leadership, and Attitude (see also A, B, and C).

The hypotheses were based on the belief that student leaders and participants would have greater intellectual competence and academic achievement than non-leaders and non-participants and that they had more information and more interest related to campus activities.

TABLE 4

Correlation Matrix of Experimental Variables

	Leadership	*Participation*	*Academic Apt.*	*Academic Ach.*	*Information*	*Interest Attitude (O)*
Leadership						
Participation	0.60†					
Academic Aptitude[a]	0.02	0.08				
Academic Achievement[b]	0.02	0.18*	0.48†			
Information	0.36†	0.48†	0.22†	0.17*		
Interest	0.22†	0.31†	−0.09	−0.10	0.28†	
Attitude	0.10	0.11	0.21*	−0.03	0.06	0.17*

* 0.05 level of significance.

† 0.01 level of significance.

[a] Number of cases for correlations involving Academic Aptitude is 125.

[b] Number of cases for correlations involving Academic Achievement is 135.

Number of cases for other correlations is 147.

Results and Discussion

Academic Aptitude. Two of the five hypothesized relationships were substantiated by significant, although low, correlations. Previous research had led to the belief that significant correlations would be found between Academic Aptitude and the variables of Leadership and Participation, but this failed to occur, the obtained correlations falling short of significance. However, Academic Aptitude did correlate significantly with Information (22) and with Attitude (21) (see TABLE 4).

The results indicate that, at least at the University of Hawaii, intelligent students neither lead nor participate more than their expected numbers, nor do they take more than average interest in campus activities. The correlation between the OSPE and Information could easily result from the more intelligent students doing better at recalling information and using "educated guesses." The remaining relationship, between Academic Aptitude and Attitude, shows that the more intelligent student, although taking only an average active and passive interest in campus activities, is more favorably disposed towards them.

With the thought that a curvilinear relationship might exist between Participation or Leadership and Academic Aptitude, eta correlations were computed. The results approximated those above and did not achieve significance. Also *t* tests between leaders and non-leaders, participants and non-participants similarly showed no significant differences in academic aptitude.

Academic Achievement. Again two of the five hypotheses were significantly correlated, although the correlations were low in both instances. Academic Achievement is related to Participation (0.18) and Information (0.17). The explanation for the relationship with Information probably parallels the explanation given for the relationship between Academic Aptitude and Information; however, the lack of a significant relationship between Academic Achievement and Attitude (whereas a relationship was found between Academic Aptitude and Attitude) cannot be adequately explained.

The relationship between Academic Achievement and Participation is consistent with previous research although low, but the lack of a similar relationship with Leadership is not consistent. One possible explanation is that leaders spend so much of their time on campus activities that their grades suffer, while the same does not hold true for the participants. Another explanation is that leaders are selected, within a homogenous population such as the University of Hawaii, on other bases than those related to intellectual ability or accomplishment.

Information. Five of the six hypotheses regarding Information were established in the predicted direction, four of these at the 0.01 level. Two relationships, *i.e.,* Academic Aptitude (0.22) and Academic Achievement (0.17), have been discussed previously.

In addition, the Information Test correlated 0.48 with Participation and 0.36 with Leadership. These relatively substantial correlations provide a type of concurrent validation for the Information Test. Interest in campus activities, as measured by reading the university newspaper, correlated 0.28 with Information. It appears then, that well-informed students tend to be both leaders and participants, tend to be brighter and receive higher grades, and are more likely than average to read the campus newspaper.

Interest. Interest in campus activities, measured by the frequency with which the college newspaper was read, was significantly related to four of the six hypothesized variables. The correlations were with Participation (0.31), Leadership (0.22), Information (0.36), and Attitude (0.17), and were all significant beyond the 0.01 level.

Discussion and Conclusions

Of seventeen hypotheses regarding intellectual correlates of campus leadership and participation, three were significantly established at the 0.05 level of significance and seven beyond the 0.01 level.

The significant relationships seem to point out that interest in campus activities (as measured by reading the college newspaper) and information regarding these activities are both substantially related to leadership and participation, while academic aptitude and grades have only the most marginal relationship to leadership and participation.

Students at the University of Hawaii who are well informed concerning campus activities tend to be leaders or participants, show greater interest in these activities, and have slightly higher academic aptitude and achievement. Students who show their interest by reading the campus newspaper also tend to lead or participate more than average, although they are only of average ability and accomplishment.

Two explanations seem most probable in accounting for the lack of verifying previously obtained relationships between academic aptitude and academic achievement and the other variables. One assumes that the student body, perhaps by virtue of their predominantly Asian ancestry, does not emphasize the rewards of success in activities sufficiently to motivate the better students into participating. The second assumes that the attitudes of college students towards campus activities have changed since the thirties and forties, so that organized activities no longer hold sufficient attraction for better students in general. The possibility of the second explanation being true can only be ascertained through similar studies on other campuses.

Summary

A survey conducted at the University of Hawaii measured student attitudes towards campus activities. Measures were obtained of information on campus activities, attitudes towards these activities, extent of participation and leadership, and several biographical variables. Expected relationships between academic achievement and aptitude, on the one hand, and participation and leadership, on the other, were not found. Other hypothesized relationships were found to be statistically significant. A discussion is also given on the procedures in constructing the survey form and some specific responses to it.

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DAY-DREAMER

Lonely little Juan Rodriguez,
Captive in a crowded city classroom.
Higging his seat, never close enough,
To the queer hissing radiator;
Trying, trying to warm his chilled innards,
As the sleet slaps and penetrates the panes.
His restless brain tensely knotted,
Coping with the curious, guttural syllables
Falling steadily from the tall, strange foreigner.

O and away he soars—
Far beyond the stratospheric sound barrier
Running barefoot through the lush, familiar foliage
Outside the torrid, steaming slum of El Fanguito
Climbing the long, lithe line of a palm tree
Diving with sharp curve into the sparkling water.
". . . Will you take the top of page 4, Juan?"

Samuel G. Gilburt

From *The Graduate School Record,* Long Island University, Spring 1960.

Plans of Arkansas High School Seniors

D. C. ANDREW and FRANCIS STROUP

Because of increased interest in specialized training for talented students, the post graduation plans of high school seniors have assumed greater importance. Data about future plans should be valuable to counselors in assisting students making vocational choices, to administrators in planning future curriculum, and to all concerned in decreasing the waste of human talent.

In the spring of 1957, a 10-page questionnaire was sent out to 15,248 Arkansas high school seniors who participated in the statewide testing program. Responses from 12,746 seniors provided information concerning their post graduation plans. Since all students did not participate in the testing program, comparisons were made to determine the representativeness of the sample.[1] It was found that the sample showed no significant difference from the state as a whole in the proportion of schools of any academic classification, the proportion of white and colored schools, and the proportion of male and female seniors. Thus the sample was considered representative of all Arkansas high school seniors of 1957. In the questionnaire, specific answers were sought to the following questions:

1. What are the post high school plans of Arkansas high school seniors?
2. What are the reasons that students give for making these plans?
3. What factors might be related to choice of plans?

Findings

Of the 12,706 respondents who indicated a choice, 5,695, or 44.82 per cent, revealed plans for going to college, while the remaining 55.18 per cent indicated other plans. Plans for continuing their education in some manner other than by attending college were indicated by 4,352 or 34.25 per cent. The percentage of students planning to continue their education by various methods other than by college was as follows:

	Per Cent
Go to trade school	4.62
Go to business school	8.34
Go to other type of school	5.89
Do post-graduate work in high school	0.44
Enter military service	10.72
Other	4.24

Respondents also indicated plans for getting jobs. Since job preference is related to the sex of the respondents, the percentage of students indicating preference for various types of jobs is presented.

	Per Cent of Total Respondents	
	Male	*Female*
Office work	3.04	38.72
Skilled tradesman	11.80	2.99
Laborers	14.47	2.54
Sales	1.81	1.22
Own or operate a farm	3.01	0.17
Other	3.87	1.67
Total	30.00	47.31

In addition to the choices indicated above, 486 respondents indicated plans for working for their parents the following year. Many seniors checked an item in more than one category which explains the large number of total responses.

The distribution of choices of students not planning to go to college indicated that

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This article is part of a larger report on a study of factors related to Educational Discontinuance of High School Graduates. The complete report was performed pursuant to a contract with the U. S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

The complete report, *Barriers to College Attendance*, published by Southwest Printers and Publishers, Inc., is available through the Southern State College Bookstore, Magnolia, Arkansas.

[1] Approximately 90 per cent of the high school seniors in Arkansas participate in the state-wide testing program.

a large majority of the girls planned to go to business school or do office work, while the predominant choice of the boys was to enter military service or do skilled tradesman's or laborer's work.

Since the writers were interested in taking a closer look at students planning to go to college, a number of factors were investigated to determine their relationship to plans for attending college.

Sex. While 50.69 per cent of the male respondents indicated plans for going to college, only 39.08 per cent of the females had such plans. Thus, in Arkansas, higher education still is predominantly seen as a greater necessity for boys than for girls.

Race. Of the 11,124 seniors attending predominantly white high schools, 4,773 or 42.91 per cent planned to attend college; but 60.07 per cent of the 1,450 attending predominantly colored schools indicated plans for attending college. It was interesting to note also that 57.97 per cent of the white students planning to attend college were boys, while boys accounted for only 44.09 per cent of the colored students planning to attend.

Scholastic Ability. The choice to go to college and scores on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination showed a positive relationship. Of the respondents in this study, 11,920 had taken the ACE test. While the majority of the seniors scored below the national median, 63.30 per cent of those scoring above the median indicated plans for going to college as compared to 38.11 per cent of those below the median making that choice.

Enrollment of High School. The percentage of students planning to attend college increased with the size of the school. The percentage of seniors planning to attend college for various sized schools was as follows:

	Per Cent
Over 1,000	56.14
500–999	49.43
200–499	45.00
Less than 200	36.93

It was interesting to note that nearly 70 per cent of the respondents were enrolled in high schools with enrollments of less than 500 students.

Academic Classification of High Schools. High schools in Arkansas have one of four possible classifications, with membership in North Central Association usually being considered the highest rating. Slightly more than one-half of the high schools in the state were found to be accredited by the North Central Association. In each of the four academic classifications, the percentage of seniors planning to attend college was as follows:

	Per cent
North Central	50.24
Class A	38.35
Class B	40.18
Class C	37.67

The males planning to attend college outnumbered the females in the schools of each classification.

Place of Residence. Where a high school senior lives appeared to be a contributing factor in his choice to go or not to go to college. The percentage of students planning to go to college was as follows, according to place of residence:

	Per Cent
City[a]	57.41
Town	50.54
Farm or other	36.39

The data revealed that almost one-half of all Arkansas seniors were living on a farm or in a rural location and this group provided the smallest per cent planning to go to college.

High School Curriculum. The seniors were asked to indicate the type of curriculum they followed in high school. The percentage of seniors planning to go to college from each type of curriculum pursued was as follows:

	Per Cent
College preparatory	79.53
General	39.85
Commercial	26.60
Agriculture	32.20
Shop or technical	32.30
Other	40.20

As would be expected, a larger percent-

[a] Places classified as cities had an approximate population of 25,000 or more people.

age of students plan to go to college when they pursue a curriculum designed for that purpose. However, nearly 46 per cent of the respondents indicated they followed a general curriculum, and for many this was probably the only curriculum available.

Family Income. The per cent who planned to attend college showed a consistent increase as the wealth of the family increased. Each respondent evaluated the economic status of his own family; the per cent planning to go to college according to each category was as follows:

	Per Cent
Wealthy	70.00
Comfortable, but not well to do	49.89
Have necessities, but few luxuries	40.21
Have difficulty getting necessities	37.50
Have difficulty making ends meet	35.94

Marriage Plans. About 1,600, or 13.32 per cent, of the respondents indicated that they planned to get married within the coming year. They were predominantly girls, but about one-third of the boys planning to get married indicated they planned to go to college.

Reasons for their choices regarding post-graduation plans were expressed by the respondents. These reasons proved revealing and are summarized below according to the percentage of times checked by the students in each category.

	Checked by Those Planning to Go to College, %	*Checked by Those Not Planning to Go to College, %*
1. To prepare for a vocation	33.30	20.42
2. To be with old school friends	1.59	1.94
3. To get a liberal education	16.51	4.17
4. To start making money quickly	3.81	17.12
5. To please parents or friends	3.24	2.69
6. To be independent	9.87	18.93
7. To make friends and helpful connections	6.84	6.16
8. It is "the thing to do"	3.79	2.95
9. Foregone conclusion, never questioned why	1.04	1.47
10. Will enable me to make more money	10.37	10.29
11. "Everyone here" does this	0.05	0.19
12. Tired of studying; have had enough education	0.20	1.72
13. Only thing I can afford to do	0.66	6.19
14. Like school	7.38	2.71
15. Other	1.35	3.05
TOTAL	100.00	100.00

Respondents were not limited to a single choice of reasons, and thus a large number of reasons were indicated. In fact, a willingness to express reasons seemed to be related to interest in going to college as shown by the average number of reasons per respondent. Students planning to go to college gave approximately one and one-half times as many reasons per person as did seniors not planning to go to college.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the post high school plans of Arkansas high school seniors and to explore their reasons for making these plans. Responses were received from 12,746 seniors.

It was found that approximately 45 per cent of the seniors planned to go to college. Others expressed plans to continue their education in some manner other than by attending college, and 5,427 indicated plans to get a job. Of those not planning to go to college, girls indicated a preference to go to business school or to do office work, while boys preferred to enter military service or do skilled tradesman's or laborer's work.

A number of factors seemed to be related to plans for attending college. Such factors as sex, race, scholastic ability, curriculum pursued in high school, size of high school, academic classification of high school, place of residence, and family income showed a positive relationship with plans to attend college. The factor which seemed to have the greatest relationship with plans to attend college was curriculum pursued.

The respondents checked many reasons for choosing their post high school plans. "To get a liberal education" was a frequent choice of seniors planning to attend college. "To prepare for a vocation," "To be independent," and "Will enable me to make more money" were also frequently checked by all seniors.

High School Counselors Evaluate Their Formal Preparation

DONALD HARMON and DWIGHT L. ARNOLD

How effective are training programs for high school counselors? What do high school counselors, who are graduates of these programs, think about their training programs in preparing them for the work they are doing? This study is an attempt to find some answers to these questions.

This limited survey of active high school counselors regarding their attitudes toward their professional training has proved to be very illuminating. Though a number of authors have written on the preparation of high school counselors, few studies have been nationally published on the reactions of active counselors to their training. Consequently, the present list of counselor duties noted in Table 2 was compiled from the recommendations made by many well-known professional groups and authors in the field of guidance counseling. Professional organizations [*1, 9*] strongly maintain that counseling, testing, providing educational-occupational information, group guidance, and in-service training are duties that must be performed by the counselor. State and national offices of education [*8, 10*] also emphasize the counselor's responsibility for assisting the students in class scheduling and course selection.

Certain authors [*3, 6, 7*] point up the necessity for psychology as a required area of the counselor's training. Counseling practicum, counseling principles, individual analysis, and testing were included in the questionnaire as a result of Arnold's and Hummel's study [2]. Educational-occupational information and school and community resources have been stressed as well [*1, 9*]. Group guidance, statistics, principles of guidance, and administration of guidance have been favored by others [*11, 14*]. The need for an internship has been cited by many [*4, 5, 9, 12, 13, 15*].

Two-hundred questionnaires were mailed to a sample of school counselors who are members of the American School Counselors Association in northern, western, and eastern United States. Usable replies were received from 75 per cent or 150.

The undergraduate majors of these 150 were as follows: 33 per cent, social studies; 15 per cent, education; 13 per cent, English; 7 per cent, science; 7 per cent, health and physical education; 1 per cent, psychology. Four per cent had Ph.D.'s or Ed.D.'s. Only seven per cent did not have at least a master's degree.

Preparation for Work

Six major counseling duties were listed. Counselors were asked to evaluate their preparation for each. Table 1 gives the results.

Several conclusions seem rather clear from Table 1. First, counseling and testing is being done and is apparently a major responsibility of all of the people answering this questionnaire. This is a good confirmation of the fact that counselors are doing counseling and of the fact that testing is a very important responsibility of people in high school counseling. It is interesting that dealing with occupational and educational information as a distinct duty is carried by 19 out of 20 of these counselors. The 90 per cent who do group guidance

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TABLE 1

Counselor's Evaluation of Their Preparation for Selected Duties

Duty	% Doing This	Average Rating	Percentage Rating Each Item* Good or Excellent	Fair	Poor & Very Poor
Counseling	99	4.1	79	16	5
Testing	99	4.1	73	23	4
Group Guidance	90	3.3	42	34	24
Educational and Occupational Information	95	4.0	74	20	7
Class Scheduling and Course Selection	84	3.2	44	30	26
Inservice Training	72	3.1	39	36	26

* Excellent = 5; Good = 4; Fair = 3; Poor = 2; Very Poor = 1.

and the 84 per cent who do class scheduling still are a large majority. These are important duties for the counselors and should be considered in any preparation program.

These counselors rate their preparation for these areas as good or excellent in the three major areas—counseling, testing, and occupational information. It is equally clear that the counselors are less than fully satisfied with their training in group guidance, in class scheduling and course selection, and in in-service training. Certainly the evidence here is clear enough to indicate that the persons in charge of counselor education should look to their courses and the experiences planned for counselors in training in the three last mentioned areas. It may well be also that counselors should take further training in in-service training or supervision.

Specific Training Courses

Twenty-one course areas were listed on the questionnaire, and the counselors asked to check how adequate these courses were in preparing them for their present duties. TABLE 2 gives these results.

TABLE 2 contains the most significant information from this study. The second column gives the per cent of the 150 counselors who had taken a particular course, while the third column gives the average on the five point rating scale. The last three columns give the percentage of the counselors who took this course who rated this course as excellent, good, fair, or poor.

Let us draw some major conclusions. First, regarding the different kinds of courses these people have taken, the most obvious and outstanding fact is that all of them have had courses in guidance principles. In fact, this is the only course outside of educa-

TABLE 2

Counselors' Ratings of Adequacy of Courses Taken

Courses	% Taking This Course	Average Rating	Percentage Rating This Item Excellent & Good	Fair	Poor
Guidance Principles	99	4.3	91	8	1
Admin. of Guidance	76	4.0	75	19	7
Group Guidance	58	3.5	53	32	15
Educ. Psychology	95	3.8	64	29	7
Ind. Diff.	53	4.2	83	14	3
Child Psychology	53	4.0	78	18	4
Adolescent Psych.	72	4.2	87	11	2
Exceptional Children	35	3.8	71	16	14
Abnormal Psych.	43	4.0	71	26	3
Learning Theory	43	3.7	60	32	8
Mental Hygiene	72	4.3	82	17	1
Case Studies	56	4.0	77	21	3
Educ. & Voc. Tests	86	4.2	82	15	3
WISC, WAIS—Binet	52	4.5	89	8	1
Individual Analyses	37	4.3	87	11	2
Statistics	70	3.8	70	19	12
Ed. & Occup. Info.	84	4.0	77	15	8
School & Comm. Res.	38	3.8	66	22	13
Couns. Principles	88	4.3	84	15	2
Practicum	47	4.1	74	22	4
Internship	12	4.1	72	17	11

tional psychology that is being taken by practically all of these counselors and the educational psychology is required for teachers. These facts give considerable pause. Apparently the only basic, common elements which everybody gets in the program are guidance principles and educational psychology with counseling principles being taken by almost 90 per cent. It is probable that titles of courses may make for the variation. However, there should be a somewhat greater degree of agreement of the areas in which counselor education is required.

Courses which have been taken by approximately three-fourths of these people include administration of guidance, adolescent psychology, and mental hygiene. Counseling principles, educational and vocational testing, educational and occupational information are taken by approximately six persons out of seven entering these fields. It is difficult to see why courses such as these should not be taken by all of the people who are going into counselor education. It is also very difficult to see why only 58 per cent of this group had taken courses in group guidance.

These results tend to confirm a suspicion that counselor education programs too often are a hodgepodge of available courses rather than a carefully planned sequence.

One other conclusion from column one on TABLE 2 is that few of the courses in psychology are taken by more than half of the persons involved. There is a general agreement that psychological background is desirable for counselors, but this evidence indicates that the psychology being secured by persons going into guidance is quite scattered and is not consistent.

Column three, the average rating given by the counselors, is important. The highest rating received by any single course was given by the 52 per cent on individual testing such as the Binet, a rating of 4.5 on a 5 point scale. This is distinctly higher than the rating given to practicum or internship by the students who had had those courses. Apparently closely supervised, intensive work with individuals was considered very valuable by these counselors.

Ratings of approximately 4.2 or 4.3 were given to guidance principles, courses in individual differences, adolescent psychology, mental hygiene, education-vocational tests, individual analysis, and counseling principles. These are important courses, and this suggests work of a satisfactory level in these courses.

The lowest rating was given to group guidance by the 58 per cent who had this course. This rating was midway between fair and good. Several conjectures could be given as to why this kind of rating was given. First, it could be that the instructors had no background training or experience in the field. Second, it is very probable that very few of the schools have anyone who is adequately prepared in terms of training and personal experience to teach such a course. Another reason is that, as of the present time, there is little agreement among counselor educators in general as to how this course ought to be taught and as to what ought to be included.

It is interesting to speculate why courses such as educational psychology, exceptional children, learning theory should be rated fairly low. These are psychology courses. Part of the difficulty may be that they are taught by people who have no appreciation of the problems of counseling in high school.

Sixty per cent of these 150 counselors responding had made no tape recordings of their interviews for study and analysis. Forty-one per cent had had no supervised practice and no tape recordings.

When asked what major suggestions they had "for the improvement of counselor preparation," the following were given most frequently:

26 per cent—more supervised counseling experience
13 per cent—more analysis of counseling interviews
7 per cent—more psychology courses

Conclusions

Several major conclusions can be drawn from this study. First, counselors are ready to give their reactions to their training programs as indicated by the 75 per cent response from a wide selection of counselors. Second, it is almost startling to find out that

40 per cent of the people in counseling have had no supervised practice or tape recording of their interviews. From the point of view of what we know now about the importance of this kind of work, it would seem that this is completely inexcusable and that persons responsible for counselor training programs should immediately move to correct this situation. The authors believe that the evidence is now available to indicate that a counselor is not adequately trained until he has had the experience of tape recording or adequate supervised practice involving a series of interviews. This conclusion is supported also by the recommendations from the counselors as to the things they feel should be done to improve counselor preparation. Between a fourth and a third of the group, when asked what suggestions they had for improving counselor education, mentioned more supervised counseling experience.

A third major conclusion is that group guidance needs to be studied and some kind of agreement reached upon content and procedures to make this course more effective. This may need to begin with an actual study of what counselors in the field are doing in the area of group guidance. Fourth, the whole question of the relationship of psychology to counseling is further raised by these data. With the exception of the individual psychological testing and mental hygiene, the psychology courses, in general, rated somewhat lower than did the other guidance courses. Further study needs to be made by persons in psychology and persons in counselor training and by counselors of the actual contribution and values that can be secured by these psychology courses and ways of making these courses as valuable as possible. A sixth conclusion is that information of this type is sufficiently valuable that some form of regular collaboration and joint study should be developed between organizations such as the National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers and the American School Counselors Association.

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Guidance in Practice

Evaluation of Program Adjustment for Superior Freshman Students at a State University

BERT P. CUNDICK

The problem of curricular adjustments for superior college students is regarded as one of the paramount problems facing American educators. In order to cope with ever expanding enrollments, most colleges and universities have found it necessary to standardize programs that are geared to their average students and require their completion by all students seeking degrees. However, many individuals in higher education have been justifiably concerned regarding the efficacy of such practices, especially as they affect the superior college student. This report will describe a program of curricular adjustment for the superior entering freshman student at the University of Utah and the effectiveness of the program during the first four quarters of its operation.

The University of Utah requires students who are candidates for a bachelor's degree to take nine quarter hours of introductory coursework in each of four areas: the physical sciences, the social sciences, the biological sciences, and the humanities.[1] These requirements are ordinarily completed by the end of the sophomore year.

Entering freshmen who have predicted grade-point averages[2] that fall within the top 10 per cent of the entering freshman class are given the opportunity to take the Graduate Record Examination Area Tests, which include measures of academic achievement in the areas of social science, natural science, and the humanities. Those who achieve scores of 500 or better (the mean score of college seniors) are excused from the introductory general education coursework in the corresponding area of the curriculum.[3]

The transcripts of the 118 students who took the GRE tests in 1957 were studied for their first four quarters of university work. The mean number of hours (m.h.) taken in introductory general education courses was computed for each student. The m.h. for those not required to take the introductory courses was compared with the m.h. of those required to take the courses. This was done for each of the four areas.

Interviews were then conducted with 20 students of the group to explore their attitudes in regard to the program of curricular adjustments and how it had affected them.

The m.h. of general education coursework in each of the four areas for those students required to fill the introductory requirement and those not required to fill the requirement are given in TABLE 1.

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This article is based on the author's master thesis completed at the University of Utah in 1959.

[1] Students in certain curricula in Engineering and Mines and Mineral Industries will satisfy the requirements in the physical science area and must elect courses to satisfy two of the remaining areas. In the past most of these students have elected to skip the biological science area.

[2] This prediction is based on a multiple regression equation derived in the University's Counseling Center, which gives weights of 4 to high school grades, 3 to total English scores on the Cooperative English Test, and 1 to scores on the Cooperative Natural Science Test.

[3] Achieving a score of 500 or better in the natural science test entitles a student to be excused from both the physical science and the biological science requirements.

TABLE 1

Mean Hours and Standard Deviations for Those Students Required to Fill the Introductory Coursework Requirement and Those Waived of the Requirement

Group	*Social Science*	*Humanities*	*Biological Science*	*Physical Science*
Waived requirement				
Mean	4.91	2.40	1.59	4.08
S.D.	5.74	3.61	2.65	2.59
Number	35	74	86	86
Required to fill requirement				
Mean	5.20	3.34	5.81	4.03
S.D.	4.57	4.26	3.63	2.57
Number	77	38	26	26

The only significant mean difference was in the biological science area (significant <0.0001). The significant difference here is complicated by the large number of students in the group granted waivers who were enrolled in Engineering and Mine and Mineral Industries. As it was noted, most students enrolled in these areas tended to skip coursework in the biological sciences when it was not necessarily required of them. Hence, the waiver granted by achieving over 500 on the Natural Science Test may not be the sole answer accounting for the size of this mean difference.

Those students interviewed approved of the administration's efforts to help them adjust their programs through waivers granted on the basis of test performance. However, in most cases they conceded that being excused from taking required introductory courses had made little difference in their own programs; although there were notable exceptions to this rule. Students who were not required to take the courses who had nonetheless taken them appeared to be influenced by one or more of the following factors (in order of importance): (1) taking the set course outlined for all students seemed less complicated and burdensome; (2) these courses were felt to have more breadth and scope than most advanced classes; (3) the possibility of an easy "A" was felt to be greater in introductory classwork.

Virtually all of the group interviewed did not wish their programs to be accelerated through credit given on the basis of achievement tests but favored some sort of an enrichment program created for their group. Most of the students indicated that a planned series of special honors courses would be enthusiastically received.

The performance of these superior entering freshman students on the Graduate Record Examination Area Tests was remarkably good.[4] They are capable of far more advanced work than they typically complete during their freshman year. When left to their own devices in planning programs, they tend to choose courses required of the average student. A planned series of courses created for this particular student group would likely be more successful than the present plan allowing them more self-direction.

[4] The means on the GRE Tests were 460 for the Social Science, 512 for the Humanities, and 563 for the Natural Science.

Supervised Field Practice in Student Personnel Work

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA COUNSELOR EDUCATION STAFF

Field practice in student personnel work has been included in the University of Minnesota counselor preparation program since 1935. However, in the past five-year period, an intensive plan for experimentation has resulted in greatly accelerated emphasis on such field laboratory and practicum activities.

Counselor preparation at the University of Minnesota now revolves around field practice and supervised counseling practicum beginning at the time the graduate student enrolls as a candidate in counselor education. Upon entrance to the program each student is assigned under supervision of a certified counselor in one of the Twin-Cities or suburban high schools for the full academic year. During the first two quarters graduate students work as members of the guidance team in selected high school counseling departments, thus obtaining valuable orientation and practice in a wide range of student personnel procedures. The third quarter is devoted to more intensive counseling practicum activities with greater responsibility for student interviews under supervision.

Weekly seminars, as well as individual consultation, provide for integration of field experiences with didactic on-campus instruction. A member of the counselor preparation staff regularly visits each student at the high school and confers with both the field supervisor and the counselor-candidate concerning the appropriateness of the learning experiences. In these ways, every effort is made to assure a rich and varied field experience for the graduate student.

At the beginning of the third quarter of graduate work, the amount of time spent by the student in the high school is increased from one-half day per week to a full day. He is considered ready at this point to help boys and girls think through their educational and vocational plans, and the greater

Responsibility for development and supervision of the field practice and counseling practicum program at the University of Minnesota rests with WILLIS E. DUGAN, *Professor and Chairman, Educational Psychology,* W. W. TENNYSON, *Associate Professor, and* THOMAS SOLDAHL, *Counselor-Education Instructor. In addition,* DONALD BLOCHER, *Counselor, Edina-Morningside High School,* ROLAND LARSON, *Coordinator of Guidance Services, St. Louis Park Schools, and* DUANE LUNDGREN, *Director of Guidance, Fridley High School, serve as members of the University staff on a part-time basis. In 1959–1960, 18 other selected high school counselors have served as on-the-job supervisors of field practice.*

portion of his day in the high school is spent in individual counseling. Supervision from the University is stepped-up through the employment of part-time counseling supervisors who work along with the regular counselor preparation staff. Individuals selected for this assignment are local counselors or directors of guidance who have a doctorate or are well beyond the master's degree in their training. They carry a maximum supervisory load of five to eight counselor-candidates. Members of the regular counselor preparation staff serve as roving supervisors, sitting in on recorded playbacks, two-way vision sessions, and small group case conferences. The regular staff members confer frequently with each student about his progress in counseling and his personal development.

Success of the field practice and counseling practicum to a great extent can be attributed to the field supervisors who have been carefully selected for this program. During the current academic year, 1959–1960, 18 certified counselors in city and suburban high schools have received a small stipend for supervising one or more students in their school. Next year this number of field supervisors is expected to increase to more than 30. The series of seminars for the field supervisors has been established as a regular graduate course offering in Supervision of Counseling. These seminars now consist of lectures, discussions, review and analysis of recorded interviews, critiques of both the field practice and the counseling practicum, and observation of practicum experiences in counseling.

The introduction of a full-year field practice and counseling practicum which utilizes certified counselors as field supervisors has resulted in a general strengthening of Minnesota's counselor preparation program. Several values are noteworthy:

1. *Students quickly develop a professional identification with the discipline of counseling.*

More active student involvement in class discussions at the outset of the entrance into counselor preparation is recognized than was formerly true. Issues and problems which normally would not be discussed until late in the student's training are now brought up spontaneously within a few weeks after his placement in the school. Interest in ethical problems runs high because decision-making situations are being observed each week in the high school. An increase in counselor-candidate attendance at local and state guidance meetings has been noted since this program was begun. In short, an earlier identification with counseling as a profession is manifest in student behavior.

2. *Field practice serves to create a readiness for counseling practicum.*

A groundwork is laid through field experiences which prepare the counselor-candidate for counseling. The experience of working in a school for two quarters prior to actually counseling, being a participant in multiple activities of a guidance nature, becoming acquainted with high school students, faculty, and the school setting, and observing counseling interviews with students and parents, all serve to build confidence in the prospective counselor. It is with a good deal of sophisticated maturity that he finally tries his own hand in interviews.

3. *Assessment of personal strengths and liabilities of the graduate student for student personnel work is facilitated by this program.*

This is perhaps one of the principal values forthcoming from an early field practice. His work in the high school provides the candidate with an opportunity to see first hand what the job of counselor is like. With encouragement from the counselor preparation staff, each student is motivated to take a good "hard" look at himself in relation to the functions he is performing in the school. From the beginning an effort is made to establish an attitude of "continuous self-appraisal" on the part of the graduate student. It has been interesting to observe that the kind of responsible self-analysis normally expected only at the point of intensive counseling practicum is now being assumed by the student during the first months of graduate work.

Informal assessments by the field supervisors, as well as a formal evaluative report submitted twice during the year, provide the counselor preparation staff with information helpful in confirming judgments about the student's progress and development. The "Evaluative Comments by Field Supervisors" represent the kinds of observations made by these certified counselors and give some indication of the importance of their role in the preparation of Minnesota counselors.

4. *Utilization of off-campus facilities for field practice and counseling practicum promotes close relationships between the University staff and counselors in the field.*

The supervising counselors seem to welcome the opportunity to work closely with the counselor preparation staff, to exchange ideas about individual and common problems, and to obtain reassurance concerning their handling of problem situations in their own schools. It might be said that the University staff members through their informal visits to the high schools and through the more formal on-campus seminars for field supervisors, are engaged in a continuing educational and service function to the counseling staffs in the participating schools. The effect of this endeavor is a general upgrading of counselor competence in this state, particularly as these cooperating counselors assume influential leadership positions in the statewide Minnesota Counselors Association.

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Syracuse Scales of Social Relations

REVIEWED by ANNE ROE

SYRACUSE SCALES OF SOCIAL RELATIONS. Elementary (grades 5–6), Junior High, Senior High, 1959. Inter-individual and inter-group comparisons in relations to needs as follows: Elementary, succorance and achievement recognition; Junior High, succorance and deference; Senior High, succorance and playmirth. 1 form at each of 3 levels. *Time:* total of 50 minutes in 2 periods. *Prices:* $4.50 per 35; $.35 per specimen set. Eric F. Gardner and George G. Thompson, World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

EACH OF THESE need scales requires the student to select persons from all of his acquaintance (including family, neighbors, friends, as well as classmates) whom he considers most, medium, and least (with two inbetweeners) likely to respond to the particular need, and then to classify all members of his class, first as to which of these five persons the classmate is most like in this respect, and then as to whether he is a little better or little less good than the reference person.

Need succorance is presented at all three levels as "Sometimes you get into trouble and you feel unhappy and depressed. It might be that you have been blamed for something you didn't do. Think about some time when you were very unhappy and would have liked to talk over your troubles with some kind, sympathetic person." Need achievement recognition (elementary level) is presented as: "Suppose that you have been asked to do something. It might be that you have been asked to fix up the playground for a carnival. Think of a situation where you have been asked to make or do something that a large number of people, both grown-ups and children, will see. You have been told that you choose one other person to help you." Responses on such an item hardly seem to bear directly on the intensity of need achievement-recognition in the subject himself; it could be argued that they would bear more directly on the subject's estimate of the status of other persons, as well as need succorance.

No correlations between the two scales at each level are given in the Manual. Validity is discussed largely in terms of general theory. Need deference at the junior high level and need playmirth at the senior high level seem more appropriately defined. Administration requires 50 minutes, divided into two periods. Development of the scales for these grade levels followed extensive research with college students, which has been thoroughly reported. Except for the normative data (from 87 schools in 52 school systems), however, there are as yet few studies with the younger groups.

Over-all scales are well designed and adequately standardized. They are rather more solidly based in theory and careful conceptualization than most. They are intended for individual analysis as well as for class assessment and the detection of cliques. They offer a kind of information not previously obtainable easily by other means, and intensive investigation with them would seem to be well worthwhile. It should be noted, however, that a relatively high level of psychological sophistication is needed for any teacher who is to make really good use of them.

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Letters

from our readers

The Necessity For Dropout Studies

To the Editor:

In order for us to provide maximum education and training for our young people, there are many things we need to know about the still large number of students who for various reasons drop out of school [4]. There is no doubt that this problem demands our utmost scrutiny. Time and effort put into studies would be legitimate expenditures for any progressive school system. A major argument for studies of this type is posed by the large number of our students in this category. The national figure quoted in the Providence, Rhode Island study in 1950 was 47 per cent [1]. In 1955 the figure was 40.7 per cent [2].

There are three significant questions in this area. One, how can we retain those students who would in the long run benefit from further high school instruction? (It is estimated that two-thirds of these dropouts have IQ's of 90 or above.) Two, what can we provide in the way of exploratory, supervised work experiences for the students whom we will lose before their completion of high school? (These students are often not oriented to the world of work.) Three, how can we identify these students at the most crucial point in their educational experiences?

Because so many of our dropouts leave school before the ninth grade, Dr. Conant's suggestion that we provide counseling programs in elementary grades is applicable. With the pressing problems of adequately staffing our high school counseling services, it might be helpful to better prepare our elementary teachers for their guidance responsibilities. This, of course, is only one of the many possibilities. Dr. Conant also suggests diversified programs for developing marketable skills.

In addition to identifying these youngsters before they drop out, we need to guide them with full consideration and understanding of the present trends in employment. Labor statistics indicate some three million workers will be entering our labor market yearly after 1965 [3]. Many entry jobs require special training and skills.

In Cleveland, Ohio, I secured from Mr. Robinette, Assistant in the Bureau of Attendance, a list of the jobs acquired by dropouts in Cleveland from September of 1958 to December of 1959. Records for January, February, and March of 1959 were unavailable. The compilation of these statistics revealed some interesting facts about the jobs available to dropouts in that area. It also provides a basis for further study.

Most of the jobs found were of an unskilled nature. Fifty per cent of them were in stock, sales, maintenance, car wash, gas station attendance, shipping, and packing in descending order (See TABLES 1 and 2).

Fewer jobs were secured in December during both the recession year of 1958 and the year 1959, 42 in the former and 61 in the latter. Jobs which may be termed as seasonal such as caddying, grooming horses, car hopping, ice cream vending, lawn tending were secured by 22 boys. Only one boy was hired as an assistant foreman in a plant and one as a foreman. 41 jobs were secured in some phase of restaurant work. Bottle washers, dish handlers and counter boys were most common. I could not find an acceptable common grouping for many of the jobs.

It is hoped that further studies can be made following up specific individuals to determine their attitudes about the jobs found, salary scales, hours of work, and other significant factors. I do not advocate that all of our dropouts stay in school, as stated earlier. With rising school enrollments, it is doubtful that this would be wise. But unless our schools provide as nearly as possible adequate preparation for entry into the world of work, their duty to our democratic society has not been discharged.

TABLE 1

Jobs Received by Boys Who Dropped Out of School

Job Title	*Number of Jobs Listed*	*Per Cent of Total Jobs Listed*
Stock	192	18.5
Sales	95	9.0
Maintenance	74	7.0
Car Wash	60	6.0
Gas Station Attendant	50	4.9
Shipping and Packing	41	3.9

TABLE 2

Partial List of Place of Employment

Type of Establishment	*Number of Jobs*
Stores (Department, Drug and Grocery)	200
Factories	100
Garages and Gas Stations	105
Restaurant	41
Laundry	25

It is imperative that our anxiety in the realm of science not be allowed to overshadow the need for providing significant educational experiences for all students. This is the backbone of democracy. I am not saying that our gifted, college-bound students should be neglected. But they must live in a world with less gifted, non-academic students. The wider the difference in educational concern for these two groups, the more we shall continue to waste our biggest national resource, manpower.

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New Horizons in Management Selection and Development

To the Editor:

Research in the past several years has emphasized the importance of the total personality factor in executive appraisal and management development. Specific characteristics or traits have been identified as being related to the successful executive. To mention some of the critical ones would include achievement drive, decisiveness, attitudes toward people, relations with superiors, relations with subordinates, organizational ability (approach to problems), emotional stability, self-evaluation, etc.

Psychologists have devised tests to measure these traits, the most useful being those that utilize the projective techniques such as the Thematic Apperception Test. However, the problem in using this type of instrument is that the results are only as good as the interpreter. Because of the subtle nature and the limited structure of this type of measurement, the individual being evaluated gives clues to his basic personality structure which have a direct bearing on his more superficial reactions indicated in the job situation. Recognizing this basic personality structure can then allow for a much better matching of the man to the job, particularly at the managerial level.

Psychiatrists have been concerned with human behavior and basic drives as they are related to satisfying the needs of the individual. From their techniques of depth interviewing based on a psychoanalytical approach, an understanding of the basic personality structure can also be determined.

If a company can define what it wants in a man for certain positions, there are then techniques which can be used to match the requirements with an individual's qualifications: personality, performance record, intelligence, specific aptitudes, training, and experience. However, if we are to approach this most important problem (from a financial as well as a human relationship point of view) of matching the right executive to the right managerial position, should not *all* approaches be explored? Since it has been found that the personality factor is the most important single element in predicting success at the executive level, crossing the two disciplines of psychiatry and psychology, which are most concerned with this area of human development, would seem to be a requirement of a more valid "fix" as compared to the use of just one technique in the measurement of this nebulous personality factor. When the relationship between two professional people in these fields is such that cooperation and blending of individually determined results of the evaluation process is possible, the final appraisal will be much more accurate. Areas of question occurring in the independently determined evaluations must be clarified and confirmed by the other discipline to remain a part of the final report. Cross-checking of this type helps to prevent erroneous interpretations from occurring on the basis of insufficient evidence. Justification for this combination of disciplines is not only apparent from our own experience and follow-up in executive selection but also in the results of combining the techniques of psychology and psychiatry being used nationwide in selecting foreign service personnel for the U. S. Information Agency. Furthermore, the fact that this team approach has been used so successfully in the clinical diagnosis and understanding of the total personality structure would seem to be further evidence for using this principle in the evaluation and understanding of the total personality structure and potentiality at the managerial level for business and industry.

With expansion and decentralization of administrative functions, the selection of department managers today becomes as important as the selection of a vice president a few years ago. To keep pace with these developments demands a knowledge of personnel potential in a growing organization. This can be accomplished with the help of an outside consulting firm who can add to the personnel records an appraisal of the individual's ability to utilize his capabilities through his personality structure. A twofold purpose may be achieved in these evalua-

tions if the referring industry desires to use the results of the procedure not only for their own personnel planning and administration but also as a management development tool. The results can be interpreted to the individual in a positive manner by a professional counselor. In this way the individual will have an opportunity to gain some insight into his potentiality and the reasons for his reactions which may result in a more positive use of his abilities and a minimizing of his weaknesses. Although it must be recognized that all people are not going to be subject to change, it may be possible for them to be happier in a more realistic evaluation of themselves. In either event, the results of the counseling phase of the procedure can be interpreted as management's interest in the individual's own development program which will have a positive effect on morale.

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Books Reviewed

reviews of recent publications . . . by various contributors

GUIDING TODAY'S CHILDREN, by Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools Office. Los Angeles: California Test Bureau, 1959. 295 pp.

THE LOS ANGELES County school system was an early publisher in the field of elementary school guidance with its *Guidance Handbook for Elementary Schools* in 1948. The book reviewed here is the *Handbook's* much expanded successor. It is "intended as a resource for teachers and administrators in understanding and helping boys and girls in the elementary schools of Los Angeles County."

The dilemma one faces in reviewing books in elementary school guidance is occasionally stated in these columns. It is found in this question: what is guidance, and how do you implement in elementary schools that which you define as guidance? No formal definition is offered in this book, but on page five are found these statements. "Guidance helps teachers to understand the needs and abilities of individual children. Through guidance, teachers are enabled to utilize the dynamics of learning so that each child realizes his potential. Guidance concepts also aid the teachers' efforts to develop mentally healthy and well adjusted personalities."

Pondering these statements and studying the contents of the three parts of this text, this reviewer concludes that its contents could equally well have been expressed in a title as *Child-Development Oriented Education*. In short, the term guidance is used in this book in its broadest sense: abetting the development of individuals. This text, then, is a lucid introduction to human development principles as applied to elementary education. That fact that it is published by and for one school system should not deter any other system or teacher from using this book for it is thorough in breadth, replete with sound generalizations, and produced in readable, illustrated, attractive format.

The four chapters of Part I (along with Chapter 10 in Part III) comprise a sound offering of Studying and Understanding Children. Part II offers five chapters covering Understanding and Planning for Children with Special Needs. The third part is titled The School Staff Works Together for Children and in its eight chapters clearly shows the cooperative nature of such child development programs. Each of the parts is followed by a bibliography of selected references which show discriminating choice from a wide field of literature.—RICHARD HILL BYRNE, *Professor of Education, University of Maryland.*

DISCIPLINE, ACHIEVEMENT, AND MENTAL HEALTH: A TEACHER'S GUIDE TO WHOLESOME ACTION, by E. L. Phillips, D. N. Wiener, & N. G. Haring. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1960. x + 198 pp. $3.75.

THIS LITTLE book has been written specifically for teachers, counselors, and other school personnel who are directly concerned with controlling and motivating students. Unlike many other books in this field, however, this guide is thoroughly practical and sufficiently well detailed with suggestions to prove highly useful in many common classroom situations.

Good discipline is viewed as basic to satisfactory achievement and mental health. The authors take great pains to point out that good discipline is not a matter of punishment but rather an emphasis upon the development of structure and order within the classroom by close attention to the detailed daily activities of both teachers and students. Such systematic, ordered learning in which the individual is held accountable promotes achievement and self-discipline generally, as a habitual way of behaving. The resulting self-discipline and sense of accomplishment contribute to self-assurance and feelings of well-being. Fundamental to the concept of good discipline is the emphasis upon pointing out to the child the realistic consequences of

actions the child may take, placing the responsibility for choosing upon the child. No punishment is suggested; work is related to a reward that is built into the child's activity. All relevant matters are stated in advance. With the presentation of clear-cut alternatives, the child knows what will happen to him with either course of action. When the consequences fall, they will not be viewed as punishment, but rather as the end result of a course of action the child knew well in advance. Where the teacher follows these principles, only in exceptional cases is it necessary for a child to receive special treatment by a school psychologist or psychiatrist. Albeit oversimplified, such is the general thesis that the authors stress by concrete illustrations and practical suggestions throughout the book.

Following a discussion of changing values in society and different kinds of discipline, several simple techniques for obtaining good discipline are presented. Considerable space is devoted to ways of aiding achievement, social and emotional growth, with particular emphasis upon how these goals are facilitated by developing good discipline in the classroom. Later chapters deal with special educational and clinical problems, improving home-school relations, and disciplinary problems in different grade levels ranging from kindergarten to senior high school. The implied definition of mental health places high value upon such old-fashioned virtues as work and achievement, organization and effective realization of abilities, pride in accomplishment, self-reliance, and good social relations.

The entire book can be read with profit in several hours by any intelligent adult, regardless of professional training. It should prove particularly useful for teachers, school counselors, and parents who are looking for a practical approach to disciplinary problems and achievement motivation.—WAYNE H. HOLTZMAN, *The University of Texas.*

MENTAL HYGIENE IN TEACHING, by Fritz Redl & William W. Wattenberg. Second edition. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1959. 592 pp. $5.50.

MENTAL HYGIENE IN TEACHING is a revised edition of a book widely known and used in "mental hygiene courses" and similar teacher-training areas. Redl and Wattenberg are straightforward, theoretically sound, and effectively concrete and specific in an area which is important to all teachers, counselors, and guidance workers. Fundamental principles, classroom applications, and special problems are all presented in a readable and interesting fashion.

Teachers and counselors all need to ponder and investigate the "why" of behavior before taking rapid action to "solve" a problem. The authors are careful to develop ideas for the process of solving problems rather than offering pre-packaged answers. At the same time, their language, dynamic interpretations, and suggested procedures are presented in a manner which will attract non-psychologically trained persons. The organization and presentation of ideas is logical and useful. Intriguing samples of common classroom behavior begin the book. Illustrations of behavior and short case studies abound in all chapters. Most of these sections show the problem, causes, and approaches for solutions. Commonplace items such as bickering in class, as well as the unusual case of serious mental illness are equally well presented.

New concepts (second edition) are on (1) "motivation," (2) "unusual learners," and (3) "helping children develop insight." The last of these new chapters is particularly useful and attractive to a user of the book. This chapter can provide a bridge for aiding teachers to understand and work with other specialists concerned with mental hygiene problems.

Weaknesses exist for this reviewer but they are relative rather than absolute. Must Freudian jargon be used to delineate basic fundamentals (*id* and impulse systems, *super-ego)* when dynamic terms are used elsewhere in the book and could be used throughout? Many sections of the book include short and choppy, two and three line paragraphs. More careful development of an idea or a decision to omit an area would have been more desirable rather than the "glossary" style chosen. The book is also written with no emphasis upon college level problems. College students also need understanding by teachers; certainly the principles are the same.

Mental hygiene courses or teacher training programs in educational psychology could profitably use this textbook. Many

Principles of Guidance courses ought to include this approach to make meaningful and practical the issues involved in student behavior. Teachers and counselors need to base their work on a thorough understanding of the behavior of individuals. Redl and Wattenberg are pschologically sophisticated and practical in their perceptual orientation. Teachers and counselors need to examine this book whenever mental health concerns are included in a program or course of study.—EDWARD C. GLANZ, *Professor and Chairman, Psychology and Guidance Division, Boston University Junior College.*

PRIVATE PRACTICE IN CLINICAL PSYCHOLOLOGY, by Theodore H. Blau. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1959. x + 184 pp. $3.00.

DR. BLAU'S BOOK is the first full-length book having to do with the private practice of clinical psychology. The book includes 16 chapters organized into four parts: Preparation for Practice; Clinical Functions and Procedures; Professional Liaison and Responsibility; and Additional Considerations.

Blau's discussion of Part I, Preparation for Practice, is generally cautious and realistic, but he seems to expect too much of the psychological "general practitioner" in that he requires great competence over a complete range of clinical skills. Except for the GP's in medicine, nearly all practitioners from other professions soon develop their specialties; psychologists will probably do likewise. Part II, Clincal Functions, presents an overview of the practicing psychologist's work-a-day world. Part III, on professional relationships, is probably the weakest section of the book. This reviewer would have anticipated greater detail and more extensive coverage of such topics as the following: instances where pediatricians and psychologists might differ on diagnosis and recommendations for therapy; cases of parents consulting a psychologist at a point of difference between the family and the school, in concern over a child's school progress and emotional adjustment; cases of parents or other adults recoiling from

psychiatric or medical care and their possible misuse of the psychologist's skills and professional position; instances of differences between therapists treating separate members of the family and the impact of these differences on given individuals. Most of the material presented in Blau's book can be easily and quickly learned by any expectant practitioner; however, the more subtle problems and the more refractory difficulties with patients and with allied professions get scant treatment.

Part IV is concerned with research and group practice considerations. Blau recognizes that private practice in clinical psychology has not been held in high esteem, but that respect for it is growing. Perhaps psychologists are overly self-critical and display too high a level of aspiration. Most psychologists do not look upon the economist, the engineer, the lawyer, the physician or other professions with disdain simply because they are in private practice. The architect, who commands much respect, is almost wholly in private practice; and the mathematician has of late become a private practice artisan. Blau's support for the values of private practice could have been stronger, this reviewer thinks.

Upholding standards for private practice is important. The Ph.D. degree would seem to be essential, but even in the APA some members continue to assert that the M.A. level of training is sufficient for many if not most psychological functioning of the psychometric, counseling, advising varieties. A professional organization cannot afford to have two heads about such important matters as standards and still expect to present a valid and consistent position to other professions and to the public.

Despite some minor criticisms, Blau's book remains important for the expectant practitioner, as well as being a source of information to the non-practicing general psychologist who wants to remain in contact with all phases of the profession's development.—E. Lakin Phillips, *Psychologist, (Private practice), Washington, D. C.*

THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS, CURRICULUM PROGRAMS, REPORT OF THE KANSAS TEPS CONFERENCE, *1959*, The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association 1959. 453 pp. $3.50.

In June, 1959, representatives of nine major educational associations, in cooperation with some 60 single-field associations, met at the University of Kansas, in Lawrence, for a national conference on the changes necessary in teacher education curriculums to provide outstanding teachers for the future. This book is the report of their deliberations.

Like any book which is "authored" by scores of individuals, there is a great spread and divergence in the attitudes and opinions which are expressed and in the content of the discussion. However, this reviewer would agree with the statement in the foreword of the book which indicates that there were two points of near unanimity among the participants: (1) the planning of a teacher curriculum should consist of thorough, substantial work in general education, special education, and professional education; and (2) those engaged in education can agree on goals of quality in teacher education and can make great progress toward substantial agreement as to what is required to achieve these goals.

The book is divided into five parts. Part I, Interpretive Report on Deliberations of the Conference, is a summary of the conference. It indicates the concern of the participants with their problems of teacher education and presents a model four-year teacher education program, while at the same time recognizing that "inside the course is a teacher." It also sums up the ideas of the conference on general education, on "the major," and on professional education.

Part II consists of the five major conference addresses. These are interesting talks by interesting people, but they are not people who have wrestled with the problem of how to educate the vast majority of the some 140,000 average American teachers of the future who will work with millions of average American children. There would also seem to be some confusion over the *education* and the *training* of teachers and children.

Part III, Section Addresses, consists of reports from four sections, each with a symposium of four people—a college teacher in an academic field, a college teacher of educa-

tion, a public school classroom teacher, and a school administrator talking on "If I Had My Way." Here again there would seem to be the assumption that all of the vast number of teachers must be super-human creatures, without too much evidence as to just what an individual must have and be, to be a "good" teacher and generally ignoring the fact that superlative people do not appear in lots of hundreds of thousands! Schools will continue to be staffed by some teachers who are mediocre, many who are satisfactory, and a few who are excellent. Teacher education institutions would be more realistic if they operated on the assumption that quality does not come in quantity, and a few superb teachers are worth far more than many ordinary ones.

Part IV is a summary of the major part of the book, the working papers of the group discussions, which follow in Part V.

Part V, Conference Working Papers, consists of 32 descriptions of undergraduate teacher education programs and 13 descriptions of selected teaching-field programs.

This is a book which will be of interest and value to all those who are interested in the problems of teacher education, and certainly the participants represent many of the top people in this field. Yet the book leaves the reviewer with the uneasy feeling that the participants are discussing the education of teachers as if these teachers were only going to work with one-third of the school populations. There is at least a faint tinge of academic unreality in the discussions, and there would almost seem to be a refusal to accept the fact that *all* American children *must* go to school for a number of years, and teachers must accept the responsibility of educating all of them.—Dugald S. Arbuckle, *Professor of Education, Boston University.*

Planning a College Union Building, by Chester Arthur Berry. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960. 210 pp. $4.75.

This book begins with a brief relation of the history of the college union movement and its growth in this country. The presentation of the changing concepts and eras through which college unions have passed underlines the author's discussion of the college union as typically American, a manifestation of a democracy.

Considerable care is taken in this book to present, within the framework of its educational implications, the role of a college union on a campus, its nature and its purposes. The author discusses the methods (the program) of the college union in fulfilling the purposes of American education promulgated by the Educational Policies Commission in 1938. He points out that a college union is an organization and a program as well as a building. A strong plea is made and guidelines are given to insure that the building is an expression of all components of the union. Excellent suggestions are given concerning basic principles of planning structures of this nature in relation to the purposes and program of the particular facility.

While the title indicates building planning, this book is liberally sprinkled with suggestions of operation procedures and methods, thus strengthening the author's thesis that advance architectural planning is inseparable from the effectiveness of the operation of the unit after construction is completed. Expansibility, flexibility, and functionality of the building together with a concern for the efficient and economical operation of the building are discussed. Included is a list of common planning errors experienced in unions throughout the country and a check-list for union building planners.

In outlining more than 100 different facilities found within or adjacent to college unions, the author makes use of the results of a previous study by Wolf which indicates a core activity program of a college union comprising 204 activities. By various listings, he relates the different activities to the facilities by indicating the various uses and functions of each facility according to the core activity program.

This list of 103 different facilities, grouped in the broad areas of Administrative, Service and Maintenance, Food, Quiet, Games, Hobby, Theatre, Outdoor, Miscellaneous, and Non-Union (student government offices, etc.), are analyzed in detail. This detailed analysis covers such areas as sound control, spatial relationships, functions to be undertaken in the area, space requirements, lighting, ventilation, safety,

relationship to weather conditions, types of basic equipment needed, pros and cons of different operating procedures of a given facility as they are affected by planning and design, maintenance requirements, and a host of other considerations.

This is the first book ever to be published concerning the planning of college unions. It is not intended to be the last word but it does fill a great gap in the literature of planning university facilities. The author will be criticized by those who read into this book an implication that he is presenting a panacea, and a conviction that the well-planned college union can be all things to all people, solve problems of student discipline, and accomplish the purpose of educating the whole student. These are not the author's intentions but his presentation of the relationships between the attainment of educational goals and the proper planning of facilities for flexible and yet functional use provides a refreshing attempt to show how the best use of wood, paper, terrazzo can heighten esthetic experience; how interior decoration can influence courtesy, how space relationships can promote cooperation and civic responsibility—how these and many other examples contribute to the attainment of our educational goals.

As our industrial progress provides changes in equipment and materials, almost overnight, the reader should not accept at face value the discussion of these in the book for some of them were relatively obsolete by the time the book was published. With this in mind, however, this book, in part for some and in its complete form for others, is highly recommended for all college officials, planning committee members, and other groups charged with the responsibility of planning a custom-made union to fulfill custom-made purposes.—W. E. Rion, *Director, Florida Union, University of Florida.*

Rehabilitation of Deaf-Blind Persons, Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare and The Industrial Home for the Blind. Brooklyn: The Industrial Home for the Blind, 1958. Volumes I–VII. Complete series $10.00.

This monumental work in seven volumes by the staff of The Industrial Home for the Blind is a noteworthy contribution to the literature dealing with the severely handicapped. Special problems of the deaf-blind are presented and discussed in six monographs. A seventh, number one in the series, is a manual for professional workers which also summarizes the report of a pilot study using a population of 63 deaf-blind men and women. The entire project was supported by a grant from the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

The authors of the various monographs present their area of interest clearly and concisely. They treat their subject matter well, leading the reader progressively from step to step. The teamwork fostered by the project is very evident as one reads from volume to volume. These volumes are arranged in the following manner:

I. *A Manual for Professional Workers and Summary of a Pilot Study.* This volume contains papers by staff members as well as a preface by Mary E. Switzer, Director of the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, and a foreward by Peter J. Salmon, Executive Director, The Industrial Home for the Blind. Following a presentation of the problem and personnel by George E. Keane and the introduction by Alexander F. Handel, there is an excellent commentary by the director of the project.

The authors of the various papers state their case well, staying within the natural boundaries or limits of their professional responsibilities. Our attention is called to the primary objective of the study which was to learn more about the needs, adjustments, and potentials of deaf-blind persons. Detailed data pertaining to the social, vocational, physical, and psychological aspects of deaf-blind individuals served by the Industrial Home for the Blind are presented and discussed.

II. *Communication—A Key to Service for Deaf-Blind Men and Women.* This volume presents the various methods of communicating with the deaf-blind as well as the deaf and/or blind. Problems of communication are presented and discussed. Excellent prints are reproduced illustrating actual work with the deaf-blind person. The famous International Standard Manual Alphabet, British Manual Alphabet, Lorm Alphabet, as well as other prevailing meth-

ods for work with this disability group, are presented and analyzed.

III. *Report of Medical Studies on Deaf-Blind Persons.* Areas discussed in this volume are those of social casework role, general health, otological investigations, ophthalmological study, speech and hearing services and vision rehabilitation. The papers presented are extremely interesting and specific to the subject of the deaf-blind.

IV. *Report of Psychological Studies with Deaf-Blind Persons.* The author discusses the problems of psychological assessment of deaf-blind persons. He also presents tables showing results with his study groups. After the introduction is a description of the study method. Intelligence, manual dexterity, and projective testing are discussed. General impressions on personality functioning prove illuminating. A section on observations and a conclusion complete this volume.

V. *Studies in the Vocational Adjustment of Deaf-Blind Adults.* In this volume the major emphasis is on the following:

1. The vocational counseling, training, and placement of deaf-blind adults.
2. The workshop adjustment of deaf-blind men.
3. A vocational study of deaf-blind individuals employed in work settings other than the IHB.
4. An analysis of the deaf-blind homemaker.

It is interesting to note from a rehabilitation viewpoint that an affirmative answer to the question "Can deaf-blind persons work?" is given in this chapter. The author says that 35 of the 63 deaf-blind persons studied were engaged in some type of remunerative activity when the study was made. A few were working in industry. In nearly every case, these 35 deaf-blind individuals were self-supporting.

This monograph organizes pretty well what the staff learned about the vocational adjustment of the deaf-blind population studied. The author discusses the factors which are important in the employment of deaf-blind individuals and makes suggestions, based on study and experience, as to how a local community can maximize their potentialities for successful employment.

VI. *Recreation Services for Deaf-Blind Persons.* The author sees one role of an agency for the blind as that of providing for recreation services. The IHB recreation program is presented and discussed and also its Vacation Camp.

In discussing the role of the recreation worker, who is a professionally trained social group worker, we are made cognizant of the fact that this is a new approach to recreation; recreation is seen as a part of the rehabilitation effort. Standards, methods, and techniques for recreational services to the deaf-blind are presented. There is also an excellent discussion on the professional and voluntary staff and supervision and training of voluntary and part-time staff.

A particularly appealing section involves a committee action with three members of a deaf-blind club at the Industrial Home for the Blind.

VII. *Survey of Selected Characteristics of Deaf-Blind Adults in New York State, Fall 1957.* This monograph covers the planning and implementation of the population characteristics study. It summarizes data from each area used in a most useful manner. The statistical tables are well presented for each variable used, such as age, schooling, sex, mobility, visual acuity, etc. The areas of study were:

1. Deaf-Blind Adults at the Industrial Home for the Blind.
2. Deaf-Blind Adults Known to Community Agencies.
3. Deaf-Blind Adult Population Within New York State.

The staff of the Industrial Home for The Blind has produced some very valuable material in its monographs. Professional and lay workers with the handicapped would do well to have these seven volumes for reference when confronted with special problems of blindness or deafness, as well as in combination. The appearance of the books is good. The format of each work is very attractive.

It is gratifying to say that the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation has made another significant contribution to the cause of rehabilitation through this cooperative undertaking.—James S. Peters, II, *Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation, Connecticut State Department of Education, Hartford.*

Publications . . . in brief

THOMAS M. MAGOON

First Fifty N.D.E.A. Institutes

The National Defense Counseling and Guidance Training Institute Program—A Report of the First 50 Institutes, by Leona E. Tyler. Bulletin 1960, No. 31. U. S. Office of Education, USGPO, Washington 25, D. C. 93 pp. $.35.

Since the National Defense Education Act was signed into law in September of 1958 some dramatic changes have occurred in graduate instruction in guidance and counseling. A description of the first 50 NDEA-sponsored counseling institutes—those operative during the summer of 1959—gives clear evidence of this. Dr. Tyler prepared this report for the Office of Education and it is a masterful job of integration.

The content includes chapters on the Act itself, characteristics of enrollees, staff and programs, selection and assessment of enrollees, and implications from institute experience to date. Tyler finds that there were over 2,200 enrollees in these institutes, about twice as many males as females participated, their modal age was 31–35, the modal years of experience in counseling was one year or less, and one-third of the enrollees were certified at the time of enrollment.

Extreme heterogeneity is apparent in most aspects of institute programing—this applies clearly to the assessment of the enrollees and of the effects of the programs. A wide range of psychological inventories, *Q* sorts, situation tests, etc., was employed. Frequent mention is made to the fact that evaluation efforts were and are being made by several institutions outside the NDEA title V (B) which does not provide research support. The impact appears very positive from the institute reports, although few controlled studies with appropriate instrumentation have yet seen the light of journal publication.

The last major section is a stimulating presentation of commonly encountered problems and efforts of solution. These range from skill and/or adjustment level of the enrollees, extensive demand upon instructional time, the role to assign to practicum experience, the impact of the program upon regular institutional coursework offerings, and the like.

This is a very valuable reference for those experienced in institutes, those considering introducing such programs, as well as those interested in counselor training.

Hotel and Restaurant Education Listing

Directory, National Council on Hotel and Restaurant Education, 1960. National Council on Hotel and Restaurant Education, 1336 Wyatt Building, 777 14th St., N.W., Washington, D. C. 36 pp. $.25.

This column frequently attempts to cite any new or revised directories of relevance to vocational and educational matters. This directory provides a state-by-state listing of schools and colleges offering courses for the training of managers, supervisors, and workers in hotels, restaurants, and institutions. Training programs outside the United States are also included. Coverage is not evaluative in nature but does attempt to include all training programs and institutions. The brochure-sized directory also includes a directory of state directors of vocational education and a description of the National Council of Hotel and Restaurant Education.

Typical entries for training programs describe length of program, type of certificate or degree, and kinds of coursework involved. The programs range from short, how-to-do-it courses to specialty programs in academic, degree-granting institutions.

Guidance and Student Personnel Careers

Careers in Guidance and Student Personnel Services, 2nd ed., by J. L. Angel, 1960. World Trade Academy Press, 50 East 42nd St., New York 17, N. Y. 30 pp. $1.25.

This monograph—a revision of a 1955 publication—is extensive in the number of occupations covered. Occupations include those of elementary and secondary school counselor, vocational teacher, college counselor, psychologist, school social worker, placement counselor, occupational therapist, and school nurse. A fair amount of factual material is included in the monograph, but its extensiveness tends to be its weakness in that one does not get the impression that the material is addressed to a particular audience. In other words, the material is quite occupation oriented. Many of the perennial occupational monograph topics are included (nature of work, worker distribution, related positions, training, etc.). Sections on personal qualifications and "advantages" of occupations in the broad area are so general that this reader found few occupations the titles of which he could not substitute for those in the monograph and make equally good sense. Clearly, more emphasis is needed in occupational information on the *relatively unique* characteristics of a job or its incumbents.

The monograph also includes references to professional organizations but includes the national bodies representing only a few of the occupations mentioned above.

In summary, this occupational field needs occupational information generally, but more precise in-

formation than can be embodied in such extensive coverage, and information that is more personalized in terms of the more typical subgroups of readers and users.

Student Personnel Administration Study

Approaches to the Study of Administration in Student Personnel Work, M. L. Snoke (Ed.), 1960, No. 9. Minnesota Studies in Student Personnel Work, University of Minnesota Press., Minneapolis, Minn. 71 pp. $1.50.

The five papers included were presented at the Institute for Student Personnel Administrators at Minnesota in 1957. The institute program centered around the study of and training in student personnel administration. Its purposes were to exploit the case method of instruction for teaching decision-making actions and to seek out the extent of common ground between this institutional program and recent concepts and research evidence in various disciplines. The institute was designed to sensitize administrators to the potential impact of their institution's activities and expectancies upon decisions and actions taken by student personnel administrators.

A brief, but clear presentation of appropriate and inappropriate expectations for the case method is presented by Robert Merry followed by a long excerpt from a case used in the institute. T. R. McConnell's paper relates student personnel work administration to the goals of the educational institution, stressing the subtle and obvious implications of institutional goals which do and do not lend to student personnel functions a positive role in influencing student behavior. He draws a vivid picture of the extremely complex relationships and interdependences confronting the student personnel administrator in fulfilling responsibilities to central administration, students, faculty, subordinates in the student personnel program, and the community at large.

Donald C. Pelz presents two papers, one on the method and results of experimental studies of organizational behavior and a second on significant variables in the functioning of organizations. The variables selected include participation in decision making, heterogeneity and frequency of contact with colleagues, flexibility in organizational structure, productivity and motivation, and group norms.

Ben Willerman's concluding paper reports a series of studies conducted at the University of Minnesota on various facets of student social life. These include evaluation of programs (camps, dormitory counselor training, etc.), determinants of status in student groups, determinants of group membership, and the influence of group norms upon individuals.

In summary, here is a stimulating series of papers that offer much food for thought in an increasingly important part of higher education and one with which many *Journal* readers are closely identified.

Association Activities

CARL McDANIELS, EDITOR

The Branches in Highlight

The Oregon Personnel and Guidance Association

All groups take pride in being first in a professional accomplishment. The Oregon Personnel and Guidance Association is justifiably proud to be the first state educational organization to develop standards of professional competence in guidance and to award certificates to those persons meeting those standards.

Inauguration of a counselor certification program by the Association culminated a long period of study and exploration. During 1951–1952 the Association had a committee study the subject of counselor certification. The original purpose of the committee was of a watch dog nature. The Association studied the problem, recognizing that it could not sponsor counselor certification in the state. But since 23 states already had counselor certification, it was deemed wise to have reliable information when the problem of state certification arrived. Progress reports were made at the annual meetings of the Association in 1953 and 1954, and a counselor certification opinion survey conducted in March and April of 1954 among high school counselors, high school principals, and city superintendents showed: (a) an overwhelming majority felt qualifications of counselors needed to be improved; (b) a majority favored counselor certification but on an optional basis; and (c) a wide variation of opinions regarding qualifications that should be required. Three hundred and seven responses (69 per cent) were received from the total of 450 persons surveyed.

Following further progress reports made at annual spring meetings in March, 1955, 1956, and 1957, the Oregon Personnel and Guidance Association inaugurated an optional, voluntary, school counselor certification program when it adopted recommendations of the committee on October 19, 1957, during the fall conference held in Portland. This authorized a Credential Committee to establish standards and to issue certificates of recognition to those who made application and met those standards.

A total of 91 school counselor certificates were issued by the Association under this initial phase. The present program provides for three levels of counselor certification: *provisional, standard,* and *professional.* The credential committee has become officially established as the Board of Examiners of the Oregon Personnel and Guidance Association.

Through the cooperative effort of educational groups and spearheaded by TEPS, the State Department of Education Certification Section has appointed committees to develop and recommend norms for qualifications of school administrators, various subject matter, teachers, and specialized school personnel such as counselors. The professional organization involved will eventually assume this obligation. The Oregon Personnel and Guidance Association is already doing this even though at present it is on a voluntary and non-legal basis.

The state organization came into existence as a result of the Albany-Corvallis-Eugene area group which became active prior to World War II. Statewide officers were first elected in 1946. Current officers are: President—D. Paul Muno, Dean of Boys, Milwaukie High School; President-Elect—David Mortimore, Vice-Principal in

charge of Counseling, Roosevelt Junior High School, Eugene; Secretary—O. C. Christensen, Jr., Consultant on Guidance, State Department of Education; Treasurer—Mayme LaVoy, Head Counselor, Stayton Union High School; Past-President—Rev. Lawrence J. Saalfeld, former Counselor at Central Catholic High School, Portland; Consultant—Glen L. Weaver, Coordinator of Guidance Services in Oregon.

The Oregon Association holds two statewide meetings each year. One held in March in Portland during the Oregon Education Association Convention consists of a luncheon and speaker and an afternoon session, or sessions, followed by a business meeting. The fall conference is held on Saturday, usually in October, at a location chosen by the Association. This year's conference was held October 8 at Oregon State College, Corvallis, with Dr. Daniel D. Feder, President of APGA, as keynote speaker.

Between state meetings members meet periodically in area groups located in 10 different parts of the state to exchange ideas, hear speakers, develop suggestions or recommendations to the state Association and otherwise further their professional growth. These area groups have been an important factor in developing leadership and strength in the state Association.

WHO'S WHO

and Where

We are eager to reflect in this column news of the professional activities and job changes of our members. Please keep us informed. Notices should be sent to the attention of the Assistant Editor.—Ed.

William H. Knight is now State Supervisor of Research and Guidance in Vocational Education with the South Carolina Department of Education. Mr. Knight was formerly with the counseling staff in the College of Agriculture at Ohio State University.

Hobart P. Pardee who was a Counseling Psychologist with the Vocational Service Center, New York City, for eight years has accepted a position as Staff Psychologist with the Remington Rand Division of Sperry Rand.

Robert G. Wolfson who received his D.Ed. degree from Arizona State University in May, 1960, has been named Executive Director of the Adelphi Research Center, Adelphi College, Garden City, New York. Dr. Wolfson recently published an article, "Training the Epileptic," in the *ASTD Journal*.

R. Nelson Cavitt has accepted the position of Director of Guidance at Greenview Community Unit District #200, Greenview, Illinois.

Norma J. Robinson, formerly Assistant Dean of Students, New Haven State Teachers College, Connecticut, has assumed the position of Assistant Principal-Guidance Counselor at the Medell Bair School, Fairless Hills, Pennsylvania.

James F. Ward, former Guidance Counselor at Havre Public High School, Havre, Montana, is now Boys' Counselor, Sheridan High School, Sheridan, Wyoming.

Nathaniel J. Pallone, who was Coordinator of Guidance and Reading Services at the Bullis Preparatory School, Silver Spring, Maryland, has become Director of the Educational Consultation Center, an educational-vocational guidance center for the youth of Brooklyn and Long Island, recently established by St. Francis College, Brooklyn, New York, where Mr. Pallone is also a counselor in the Student Personnel Guidance Center.

William A. Ostrom has left his position as Assistant Dean of Instruction, Contra Costa College, San Pablo, California, to become Dean of Student Personnel Services at the new Barstow Junior College in Barstow, California.

KEITH HERTWECK, Assistant Principal, Niles Township High School, Skokie, Illinois, is now Assistant Dean, Junior Division, Indiana University, Bloomington, where he will be Director of the LOTS (Location of Talented Students) Program in the secondary schools of Indiana and Coordinator of the FFC (Foundations for College) Program, a summer program designed for talented students.

TOM J. THOMAS has completed two years as a Guidance Director for the Air Force Schools in Germany and has joined the Guidance Staff of the Niles Township Community Schools, Skokie, Illinois.

MARYANN EHRHARDT, former Dean of Students at Elmira College, Elmira, New York, has assumed the position of Counselor for Women at Western Illinois University, Macomb.

WESLEY S. SIMONS, Counselor for Men at Western Illinois University will serve as advisor to the Interfraternity Council effective as of the fall term, 1960. Dr. Simons was formerly Associate Director of the Presbyterian Guidance Program, Presbyterian Church, U. S., prior to his appointment at Western Illinois University in August, 1959.

DONALD D. MOTT has been appointed Placement Counselor in charge of the Central Placement office of South Dakota State College, Brookings. Mr. Mott received his master's degree in Guidance and Counseling from the College in 1959 and comes to his new position from the counseling staff of the Sioux Falls Public Schools.

LYMAN VAN WINKLE, JR., has left his position as Teacher-Counselor at Hile Junior High School, Muskegon, Michigan, to become full-time Counselor in the Junior High Schools, Montclair, New Jersey.

GEORGE M. MURPHY, former Guidance Director in the Plymouth Senior High School, Plymouth, Massachusetts, is now Guidance Counselor for the Litchfield Public Schools, Litchfield, Connecticut.

R. W. SYLVESTER, Colonel, Adjutant General's Corps, U. S. Army, has been transferred from his position as Educational Liaison Officer for the Department of the Army, Washington, D. C., to that of Director, Personnel Management Department, The Adjutant General's School, Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indiana.

WILLIAM E. COLEMAN has left the System Development Corporation to join the management consulting firm of Ward J. Jenssen, Inc., Los Angeles, California, as Director of Psychological Services. In his new position he will be involved in psychological evaluation of executive personnel, supervisory training, and various research activities for client companies.

ROY A. NORRIS has moved to Wellington, Kansas, where on August 30 he became Director of Guidance Services in the Wellington Junior and Senior High Schools.

A. D. BARRETT has joined the Benton County School System, Vinton, Iowa, as the Director of Special Education and Psychologist. Prior to coming to this position, Dr. Barrett was Consultant Psychologist for the Jackson-Dubuque County Schools, Division of Special Education, Dubuque, Iowa.

PRISCILLA R. MORTON began her duties on September 1 as Associate Dean of Students (Dean of Women) and Assistant Professor of Psychology, Eastern New Mexico University, Portales, New Mexico. Dean of Women and Instructor of English at Albright College, Reading, Pennsylvania, from 1953–1958, Dr. Morton just completed a year as a full-time student at Teachers College, Columbia University and as a part-time Assistant to the Director of Placement at Queens College.

GEORGE M. SCHLEGEL, who was Superintendent of Schools in Chickamauga, Georgia, has completed a year as Director of Guidance for the Coffee County Schools in Douglas, Georgia, and has resumed his duties in that capacity for the current school year.

C. JAMES HERRICK has left his position at Rhode Island College to accept an appointment as Associate Professor of Psychology at Hartwick College, Oneonta, New York. Professor Herrick is a former President of the Rhode Island Guidance and Personnel Association and was intrumental in establishing school counselor certification standards in that state.

RICHARD D. CUMMINGS, Counselor at the Catholic Guidance Center, Newark, New Jersey, is taking a year's leave of absence to serve as Residence Counselor with the Army Dependents' Schools, Germany.

BARBARA BEARD, Graduate Assistant in Human Relations, Ohio University, Athens, has been appointed Assistant Dean of Students at the University of California, Berkeley.

MORRISON F. GARDNER has left the University of San Francisco to take a position as Guidance Consultant in the Office of the Superintendent of Schools of Marin County, San Rafael, California.

SARAH R. TUCKER, who was a Teacher with the Board of Education, Rockville, Maryland, is now Guidance Counselor, Western Junior High School, Montgomery County, Maryland.

Deceased:

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The GAP Gage

"Gap" Crisis Ahead

DINNY DUNSMOOR, DIRECTOR
APGA PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ADVANCEMENT PROGRAM

ON JANUARY 28, 1961—some 40 days from now and on the second anniversary of the purchase of our new APGA Headquarters Building in Washington, D. C.—we will face what should be the last major crisis in our campaign to finance our new home. It can be the *last* if we meet it squarely and fully.

Yes, we got over the October 28 hurdle and made our construction loan payment of some $6,000, plus interest, and in addition made some further "completion payments." But there just wasn't enough cash to do the job up right. Now, on January 28, 1961, we must finish off that construction loan balance of some $6,000, plus interest; must make a mortgage payment of $7,500, plus six-months interest of over $3,500; and we must make completion payments of some $8,000. To do all this we must have money—cash, that is—and lots of it.

And, where do we get the money? 'Twould be nice, of course, if we should suddenly have a windfall of a few thousand dollars from some source, but this is hardly to be expected. So, there's nothing to do except raise it the hard way—by asking for it. This means contributions or gifts, large or small, from members, from branches, from our friends in the business field.

Yes, income from membership dues—$2 from each dues renewal of each dues-paying member—is helping a great deal as a regular source of income for GAP. Thus, it also helps when you bring in a new member, $2 per year for each one. So, please won't you help Bill Murphy, APGA Membership Chairman, to push our membership total on up to 13,000 or 14,000 by bringing the vision and services of APGA to at least one or two of your professional acquaintances this year? By so doing you not only help strengthen APGA's operating budget, but you also help GAP to the extent of $2 this year, $2 next year, and so on.

Every dollar that we pay off means that we are adding essentially that much to the capital assets of APGA, thus increasing the net worth of our Association which represents our interests so well in legislation, in improving standards, and in rendering better service to our clients and associates.

Frankly, it bothers me to pay large amounts in interest because it increases greatly the cost of what we have purchased. But, to make a payment for loan reduction or for purchase of furniture and equipment for our HQ Office so that the Staff may function more effectively seems to me to be more like an "investment" than an extra cost. Dollars spent this way, therefore, have long-term benefits to APGA and to us as individual members.

To be sure both you and I have many more demands for our funds than we can meet from year to year, but we must not underestimate or overlook the importance of giving something to APGA occasionally to help her along the road to the heights as a dynamic association attuned to the needs and interests of personnel and guidance workers throughout the nation. A few dollars in gifts "invested" in APGA's future now by every real friend of APGA and the cause for which we stand will pay countless "dividends" to us all in the future. I believe that you will want to have a share—certainly your pro rata share—in helping to assure APGA's future and to aid in making it a dynamic future.

We all have much work to do if APGA is to get over the hump as regards our Building Fund (GAP) in 1961. This is a must in anybody's book if he is interested in being a solid member of the personnel and guidance profession. Your support, both moral and financial, will be both much and duly appreciated.

Let's be on with the job and "GET IT DONE IN SIXTY-ONE."

American Association for the Advancement of Science

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE (AAAS) was established in 1848 as the general scientific society of the United States. The objects of the Association "are to further the work of scientists, to facilitate cooperation among them, to improve the effectiveness of science in the promotion of human welfare, and to increase public understanding and appreciation of the importance and promise of the methods of science in human progress."

The Association is divided into 18 subject-matter sections (*e.g.*, mathematics, physics, zoological sciences, social and economic sciences) each of which arranges programs in its special sphere of interest at the annual AAAS meetings. Membership is open to anyone seriously interested in the advancement of science. The present membership is 60,000. The Association has as formal affiliates nearly all of the state and regional academies of science in the United States and somewhat over 250 national and regional scientific and professional societies.

The AAAS publishes the weekly magazine *Science*, a quarterly news bulletin for its members, a quarterly newsletter dealing with problems in science education, a series of technical symposia, and occasional special publications.

One of the Association's major activities is the holding of large annual meetings which cover all fields of science and which are moved from year to year to different cities and different parts of the country. Regional meetings are held annually in Alaska, on the Pacific Coast, and in the Southwestern and Rocky Mountain region. The Association sponsors the Gordon Research Conferences in chemistry—now 36 seminars, each a week long, held during the summer months on three New England campuses. Special meetings are held from time to time. In 1955 the AAAS organized the International Arid Lands Meetings and in 1959 the first International Congress of Oceanography. A special Parliament of Science to deal with some of the social and educational problems of all sciences was held in 1958. In 1959, in cooperation with the National Academy of Sciences and the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, the Association held a national Symposium on Basic Research.

The activities of AAAS are largely devoted to matters that concern several different disciplines or the whole of the scientific community. Prominent among such activities in recent years have been a variety of efforts to improve science education, especially at the secondary school level. One example has been the preparation and distribution to high schools and elementary schools of carefully selected traveling libraries of science books suitable for the ages involved. These libraries have stimulated interest in reading science material, and the lists of books included have been widely used as acquisition guides for school libraries. Among the purposes of the traveling libraries has been assistance to students in determining the extent of their own interest in careers in science or applied science.

The headquarters of the Association are located in its own building at 1515 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 5, D. C.

Merry Christmas

and a

Happy New Year

from the headquarters staff of A.P.G.A.

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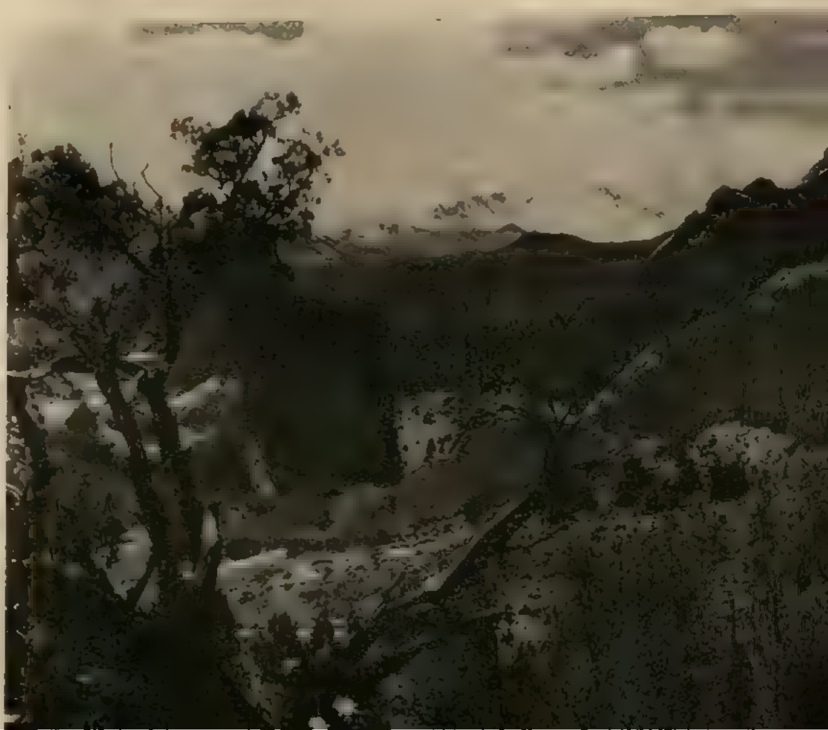

PIKES PEAK, named after explorer Zebulon M. Pike, has been of popular interest since Gold Rush days. The 14,110-foot peak is seen here from the Garden of the Gods located near Colorado Springs and famous for its remarkable rock formations. Visitors may drive to the top of Pikes Peak on a well-maintained highway usually open mid-May through October.

THEATRE OF THE RED ROCKS, located in a mountain setting close to Denver, is the site of impressive Easter sunrise services each year. You may wish to extend your visit to Denver to attend these services in this natural theatre seating more than 9,000. The gigantic red rock formations provide amazing transmission of sound from the stage.

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Denver, Colorado, March 27–30

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DEPARTMENTS

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WASHINGTON FLASHES

Transmitted by Max F. Baer

RECENT LABOR MARKET DEVELOPMENTS

Total employment: In June, 1960, civilian labor force and total employment were at record levels. Civilian labor force, numbering 73.0 million, was up by 1.7 million from year before and nonfarm employment almost matched this unusually large increase, with gain of 1.6 million to total of 68.6 million workers. Farm employment, however, was 400,000 lower than a year earlier. These and following data were submitted to us by Bureau of Employment Security.

Unemployment: At end of June, 1960, unemployment stood at 4.4 million, or 5.5 per cent (seasonally adjusted) of labor force. This compared with 3.5 million and rate of 5.1 per cent in June, 1959, and 3.3 million and rate of 4.4 per cent in June, 1957. Increase in number of jobless resulted from sharp increase in labor force compared with more moderate increase in total employment. Last June, factory employment was about 100,000 under same time in 1959 and nearly 500,000 under June, 1957. Losses were mainly in metals and transportation equipment sectors of durable goods industries. Last June unemployment rate was highest for mining and construction industries at a little over 8 per cent; 5.8 per cent for manufacturing; 4.8 per cent for service. Among major occupational groups jobless rate was highest for nonfarm laborers at 10.7 per cent; rate for operatives was 7.[illegible] per cent; for service workers it was 6 per cent. Clerical workers and craftsmen had lowest unemployment rates, with 3.9 per cent each.

Characteristics of unemployed: Highest jobless rates were among workers 14-24 years of age—16 per cent for women and 14 per cent for men. On other hand, rate for men 25 and over was only 3.7 per cent, well below 5.6 per cent for all men and 6.1 per cent for all workers. Forty per cent of jobless were 45 years of age and older. Unemployment rate for married men was 3.1 per cent as compared with 14 per cent for single men. Rate was 4.6 per cent for married women compared with 12.8 per cent rate for single women. About 1 out of 10 nonwhite workers was out of work, compared with 1 out of 20 white workers. Nonwhite workers are heavily concentrated in occupations with highest unemployment rates—laborers, farm workers, and operatives. About one-fifth of all unemployed workers were nonwhite.

Job openings in interarea clearance: Job openings placed in interarea clearance by local public employment offices—a measure of local occupational shortages—declined by some 15 per cent over fiscal year to total of 17,500 in July, 1960.

Shortages in all occupational groups except clerical and sales declined, particularly in skilled, semiskilled, professional, and service categories. Job vacancies in skilled occupations declined by more than one-fifth over fiscal year, with fewer needs listed for machinists, welders, carpenters, electronics technicians, auto and other mechanics, and repairmen. Vacancies in semiskilled group dropped by more than 40 per cent in textile, machine shop, and other occupations.

Other declines: Declines in professional and managerial group, while relatively much smaller than in industrial occupations, were significant. This category, with about 9,600 job vacancies in mid-1960—more than half of clearance total—saw drop of over 500 openings during fiscal year. Reduced needs were sharpest in engineering, with other sizeable curtailments reported for draftsmen, social and welfare workers, social scientists and authors, editors and reporters. Openings for aeronautical, electrical, civil, and mechanical engineers declined while demands for chemical engineers are now nearly twice as large as in mid-1959. More openings also are reported for industrial engineers. In contrast to general trend, unfilled openings for both primary and secondary teachers and for trained nurses have increased significantly over the year.

Industry trends: Nonfarm wage and salary employment rose about 630,000 in fiscal year 1960, compared with gain of more than two million in previous fiscal year, when economy was recovering from 1958 recession. A small net reduction in manufacturing was outweighed by gains in nonmanufacturing, particularly in state and local government, trade, and service. Loss in manufacturing was centered in durable goods industries, mainly in transportation equipment and primary metals, with smaller declines in fabricated metals, textiles, and lumber. As result of military shift from conventional manned aircraft to missiles, satellites, and spacecraft, aircraft payrolls have declined by more than a fourth from industry's early 1957 postwar peak. Aircraft industry was chiefly responsible for sizeable cutback in transportation equipment manufacturing. Basic primary metals industry also registered substantial employment declines. Twenty-five out of 28 major steel centers reported payroll reductions over the year. Employment in auto industry also fell off because of steel strike early in fiscal year, but rose markedly as new steel supplies became available. However, production slowdowns, due to rising inventories of new cars in last few months of year, reduced employment to a level only slightly above a year earlier.

Personal Responsibility, Determinism, and the Burden of Understanding

In 1793, Pinel struck the chains from the inmates of the Bicetre, staking his job and his reputation on the conception that the insane were sick human beings.[1] While his ideas were not without precedent, his action provides a useful symbol of the ending of one era in man's thinking about man and the beginning of another. For with the links of iron, there fell a set of conceptions that had long guided men's efforts to understand the emotional troubles to which they are heir.

The predominant notions that had previously governed thought about disturbances of behavior were supernaturalistic and moralistic in tone and often cruel in their implications. The deviant person was by definition one who had offended God, been possessed by the devil, committed some major sin, surrendered his humanity in some voluntary way, or had been "born that way" in the sense of having been forever out of grace by destiny. Beating with chains, scourging, and the ducking stool were combined with prayer as methods of eliminating the devil's agents from the soul of the patient or providing a means of atonement for the commission of sins. Repentance and "being made clean again" were the goals of what would now be called mental health. Even in so enlightened an earlier period as the Renaissance, the outright psychotics were regarded as less than human and consequently as legitimate objects of mixed fear and derision. Tom o' Bedlam in *King Lear* embodies that status of the mental patient at such a time.

With Pinel, however, things changed. Psychotics—and, by extension, other sufferers from behavioral disorders—were to be considered as people entitled to humane treatment. Further, their difference from others was to be conceived as medical in nature, analogous to the differences observable as a result of bodily diseases. Like those beset by consumption, gout, and the plague, the insane were to be thought of with sympathy, dealt with considerately, and looked upon as victimized by some external and naturalistic process of a pathological character.

This point of view was in harmony, of course, with two developing traditions that have been enormously influential and useful in the modern world. One was the tradition of physical and biological science, receiving its impetus in large part from Newton and Harvey and growing in vogue as its applicability to immediately practical affairs became apparent through the industrial revolution. The other was the tradition of naturalistic and liberal social thought as expressed in the *philosophies* and given currency in the American and French revolutions of which Pinel was a contemporary. As Freud gave shape to these patterns of ideas a hundred years later, they acquired the explicitly deterministic and non-evaluative character which typifies the social science of the twentieth century. So far as behavioral abnormalities are concerned, they are interpreted as products of knowable (if not known) outcomes of

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[1] This major event in the history of psychiatry and social thought is well described in a number of reliable sources. One such source is [7].

heredity and environmental interactions. They are defined as problems only with reference to some kind of cultural or societal context on the ground that neurotics and psychotics do not fit productively into the social scheme of things. When the troubles of any individual classify him as such a problem, he is to be regarded as "sick" and subjected to therapy in order to correct the pathogenic influences of his history. If treatment fails, then he is removed to an institution in which he will be cared for as humanely as finances will permit while society functions without the disruption of his presence in it.

The Point of View Examined

The essence of this point of view, which seems so thoroughly appropriate if not downright inevitable to at least the educated in today's Western world, is its basis in the outlook and methods of science. Human disorders are conceived, like other phenomena, to be outgrowths of naturalistic processes occurring in orderly if complex sequences. What happens later in the sequence is determined by what happened earlier. Since the sequences are lawful, knowledge of them is possible and affords a predictive understanding of their outcomes. If ways can be devised to intervene in the sequences, manipulating them in some selected fashion, then their results can be controlled as well as predictively understood.

The great advantages of the scientific *Weltanschaung* in physics and biology are both evident and incontestable. Especially in its application to technology and medicine has science proved its utility beyond question. Moreover, it seems fair to assert that the only route to genuine public knowledge is that provided by science. In the behavioral disciplines, science has in large degree replaced authority, prejudice, and unbridled speculation in the comprehension of human affairs. Substantial knowledge of such processes as learning and perception, of such important groups as women and racial stocks, and of such relationships as those between parents and children and between social structures and character formation has been recently developed with happy changes both in the general intellectual climate and in social policy. Thus, poverty is no longer regarded as a proper object for moral censure but a function of complex societal processes and individual characteristics. Similarly, delinquents and neurotics are more likely to be pitied for their illness than condemned for their sin. Programs aimed at alleviating such conditions as poverty, crime, and emotional disorder seem much more effective by virtue of their grounding in basic knowledge rather than in moralistic judgments often a bit whimsical in their nature.

But it must be noted that the growth of science in the study of behavior has had two very different kinds of consequences. First, as in physics and biology, the social sciences have acquired high instrumental utility. Given a particular objective, the knowledge generated by psychology, sociology, anthropology, and economics often provides an answer to the question of how to attain it. Sometimes the answer is highly applicable; sometimes less so. Over a wide range of problems, however, the contribution of behavioral science is consistently to reduce the error in estimates of how to achieve an agreed-upon goal.

On the other hand, behavioral science has produced changes in the values men hold as well as showing them how to achieve some of those they cherish. It has already been pointed out how the development of a naturalistic and deterministic science altered the view of psychotics and neurotics in a more humanitarian direction. No member of the helping professions is likely to argue that such a change in valuational attitudes is undesirable. Yet it is legiti-

mate to ask if modifications of this sort have taken place without the slighting of some significant features of human life.

A New Set of Villains

In rising to the challenge of this question, one may wonder, first of all, if some of the humanitarian attitudes concomitant to science have not been correlated with other values that are not entirely consonant with it. To take only one of the many possible examples, the tendency of clinicians, quite in keeping with a deterministic logic, is to search for the roots of emotional disorder in their patients through examining their histories, especially the histories of their relationships with parents and similar significant figures. Because parent-child frictions appear with high frequency under such conditions, clinical workers tend to conceive of parents as the villains of the pathological piece, the latter-day devils whose possession of the psyche of their youngster accounts for his delinquent actions or his neurotic anxieties. Certainly, it is not uncommon in the counseling or psychotherapy of young adults for inferences about the parents to be used in explaining the client's conduct in spite of two facts: The clinician has often not seen the parents, and he is generally quite willing to assert *abstractly* that patients are seldom objective informants about those who play significant roles in their lives.

It is quite possible that parents wear the cloven hoof more frequently than other people. But the attitude that is under discussion as an outgrowth of the sophisticated contemporary view of human behavior entails some embarrassing contradictions. First of all, it overlooks the implication of a kind of infinite regress in accounting for psychological malaise. If the troubles of a given client are the result of his parents' neuroses, were not they products of *their* parents' disorders? And so on, back through the family line? If the scheme is admissible at all, there is little room for devils in it, and no generation is more blameworthy than any other. True, one can argue, not without cogency, that blame is beside the point; but this argument seems honored at least as much in the breach as in the observance, and it presents problems when one hears clinicians discuss the desirability of a patient's expressing his negative and hostile feelings toward his parents or their surrogates as a condition of his improvement.

Second, this view of things ignores the concept of individual responsibility. While it is quite possible to make out a case under the banner of determinism for the irrelevance of such a notion, it is worth remarking that nobody behaves as if he believed such a case were true. Judgments of responsibility are shot through the warp of social life, and the ubiquitousness of such judgments is as much a part of humanity as are thought and its vehicle, language. Perhaps this observation justifies a brief scanning of the concept in relation to the problem under scrutiny.

As a term, "responsibility" refers to two different things.[2] One has to do with a logical and deterministic relationship between observations or constructs. Thus, it makes perfectly good sense to speak, for example, of previous frustrations as "responsible" in some degree for one's present aggressions. In such a context, responsibility is defined by the extent to which one may logically or empirically explain one variable in terms of another. The other meaning of "responsibility," however, is concerned descriptively with a pattern of behavior. There seem to be essentially three types of actions involved in "responsibility" in this sense: the keeping of both explicit and implied promises, the acknowledgement of error, and a tendency to act *as if* one were to a significant extent the master of one's own destiny. A kind of prototypically responsible person, therefore, is one who can be relied upon to keep his word and to act in accordance with the rules he has acknowledged as binding on him, who admits his mistakes, and who shows attitudinal evidence of regarding his future as some-

[2] The distinction drawn here is similar to that in [2].

what in his own discharge. Like all trait names, "responsiblity" implies a dimension along which people can be ordered in terms of more or less, and no one probably fits one extreme or the other with exactness. But the central point is that the concept can be construed in a purely behavioral way, and the construction seems to identify a class of conduct that is vitally important in human relationships.

The Neglected Resource

The basic charge implied in these comments is that contemporary behavioral science has been unconcerned with the self-determining characteristics and potentialities of the person. As a result, it occupies a curious position both philosophically and programmatically. In its outlook, it has substituted a kind of fatalism of events for the fatalism of divinity typical of older points of view. Demon possession, failure of divine election, or a state of being out of grace have given way to parental mishandling, an unhealthy ordering of society, or faulty education. But while these latter explanations of disturbed conduct are presumably more susceptible to correction, and while they clearly support a gentler and more humane approach to troubled people, they neither suggest any promising basis for remedial or developmental work with the individual case; nor do they take into account that characteristic human tendency, so central in the judgments of men about each other, to regard oneself and one's fellows as something more than pawns on the genetic and environmental chessboard. In a sense, the discarding of the notion of sin along with the supernatural overtones it carried in the days before Pinel may have amounted to a dumping of the baby with the bath water. If sin implied a punitive kind of treatment, it also acknowledged personal responsibility and self-determination as a human attribute. One need not defend cruelty to find a meaningful challenge in recollecting that exposure to the scourge and the ducking stool was sometimes associated with behavioral improvement, just as, among modern patients, there is a moderate correlation between behavioral improvement and exposure to various shock therapies, many of which are terrifying to those who undergo them.

This oversimplification of determinism into a fatalism of events and this neglect of the self-determining quality of human character may have had noteworthy programmatic consequences. Among other things, much research has been devoted to identifying the explanatory antecedents of criminal or psychopathological tendencies (the "sins" of yesteryear), neglecting the value systems associated with such tendencies or the problem of how such values are learned and modified. As a result, quite a good deal is known about troubled and disordered personalities but very little about zestful and contentedly vigorous ways of life and how they may be facilitated. Similarly, in concentrating on the adverse and unfortunate effects of punitive methods of child care, education, and treatment, behavioral science has not yet come to grips with the problem of how people respond to challenges, the extent to which they find standards useful in the achievement of maturity, and the degree to which their self-worth is dependent on an acquired sense of integrity, a relatively clear set of principles by which their lives are guided, and the formulation of ideals. It is as if the "virtuous" were merely the "non-sinful"—as if normality or maturity were merely the absence of pathological traits or symptoms. Since the *forms* that pathology takes are often determined by their cultural or social context, such a conception leads to the implication that the normal person is simply the innocuous conformist who creates a minimum of trouble for his group. Recent attacks on the behavioral sciences as advocating a kind of spineless "adjustment"[8] to the immediate social world, while quite wrong headed, are the understandable spawn of this omission in the research and service programs of psychology, sociology, education, and their intellectual kin.

[8] One of the best known and most clearly symptomatic of these attacks is [6].

The Humanities as Hypotheses

It is important to be clear: Nothing said here is to be construed as a stricture on science as a way of knowing or as a way of studying human affairs. Indeed, it may be well to repeat the earlier assertion that science is the *only* route to public knowledge that man has available. In its investigations of personality and behavior, however, science may have been limited by two factors, (1) the *Zeitgeist* within which it has operated and (2) its declaration of independence from the wisdom men have accumulated over their history. On the one hand, the sciences of behavior, dealing as they do with people and society—the things that matter most—have been pressed into the service of the liberal social ideas that both yield the rich and precious heritage of free expression and the value of the individual person and occasionally degenerate into license, irresponsibility, and sentimentality. The problems that have been chosen for investigation reflect in large part the emphasis on impulse release and the denial of authority that animated Pinel's time and flowered in the *fin-de-siècle* revolt for which Freud was a perhaps unwitting but certainly eloquent spokesman. A fascinating chore in the sociology of knowledge would be that of evaluating research in personality dynamics against the dominant values of the first half of the twentieth century. It seems at least a tenable hypothesis that the work done has been a reflection of such social themes as naturalism, a high premium placed on impulse gratification, anti-authoritarianism, and opposition to rules and conventions. Like other cultural products, behavioral science is likely, at least in its content, to embody in significant degree its milieu. Such a state of affairs is quite comprehensible, but it remains limiting.

Similarly, the technological power of science and its growth in prestige has led scientists to divorce themselves from the humanistic traditions represented in history, literature, and philosophy. This conflict is only symbolized by, not restricted to, the tension between behavioral scientists and professors in the humanities on university campuses.[4] While it is true that the humanistic traditions embody conservative as well as liberal conceptions and, like any tradition, tend to crystallize at times into bigotry and closed-mindedness, they also are the carriers of recurrent insights and ideas about the most rewarding relationships between man and man, man and society, and—for those who are interested—man and those Powers other than himself that he perceives in the universe. Such ideas, confused and contradictory as they sometimes are, constitute the basis for wisdom, guides evolved over history to the choices men must make in living out their lives. They represent the behavioral prescriptions in varied and often incompatible terms that define the varieties of the "good life" that the social sciences can be instrumental in achieving but which science itself cannot define.

If this reading of things has any merit, then it is obvious that a critical clarity about possible humanistic objectives and a creative hardheadedness about the methods of science must be combined if knowledge about human behavior and the potentialities of human personality is to be expanded in ways less limited by the *Zeitgeist* and more relevant to some of the issues that beset modern men. For example, it is possible to regard some of the great historical documents—the Bible, the Nichomachean Ethics, Shakespeare's tragedies—as a congeries of hypotheses about the relationship of particular life styles to such affects as guilt or security, fear or joy, self-esteem or self-derogation. Similarly, one finds in such cultural records hints that may be useful in establishing criteria of normality, emotional maturity, or positive mental health—criteria which cannot be evolved from within a scientific frame of reference alone, but which must be made explicit if research on psychological and social well being is to take a more useful turn. Still more important, the humanistic account of man's experience that these documents present abounds in theories—metaphorical in

[4] This issue is discussed from different angles of regard and with consistent cogency in [4].

language, literary in form, and devoted to the particular case, but potentially translatable—of the self-determining character of personality. The relative utility of these theories can only be tested in the crucible of systematic and controlled observation by the methods of science. But science must be familiar with them and must attend to the task of rendering them into propositions susceptible to research and precise examination.

The Burden of Understanding

But there is another way in which the traditions of the humanities bear upon the business of behavioral science, and it is nowhere clearer than in relation to the crucial and poignant problem of mental health. There has been a strong tendency recently, only illustrated by the work of Szasz [5], to challenge the whole notion of psychopathology and the behavior disorders as "disease states," lying within the province of psychology and the medical sciences for their study and control. In spite of the advantages of this post-Pinel position, it seems quite inconsistent with the usual and accepted concepts of disease. What are known as psychiatric disturbances involve complex problems in living that bear little resemblance to tuberculosis or smallpox. The latter entail physiological and physicochemical events which the physician observes, classifies (diagnoses), and treats from outside. The disorders of behavior, on the other hand, imply social and psychological occurrences of which the therapist, within the treatment situation, is an inevitable part. It was the perception of this truth that led Harry Stack Sullivan to characterize the work of the psychiatrist, in contrast to that of other physicians, as that of a "participant observer."

The same perception accounts for Davis's conclusion, based on a careful analysis of the mental hygiene movement, that the role of those concerned with the prevention and therapy of psychopathology is "not that of a scientist but that of a practising moralist in a scientific, mobile world" [*1*]. Considerations of mental health are considerations of man's struggle with the problem of how he *should* live, the moral problem of how conflicting needs and values may best be reconciled within individuals and between persons and groups, the ethical problem of how a man may properly judge the "rightness" or "goodness" of his own conduct and that of his fellows. These questions of what constitutes appropriate and desirable ways of life are the traditional domain of philosophy, religion, and literature. They are *not*, by the disclaimers of many scientists themselves, the domain of science.

It is not that science is beside the point, of course. But one's goals, the criteria for the style of life that one aspires to follow, and the moral values that one espouses and lives by cannot be derived from the structure of psychology or sociology. The decisions that are required here can only come from a discriminating appraisal of human experience. To the extent that a man is familiar with the reflected-upon grapplings of his kind with similar problems, he possesses both a richer stock of the relevant data and the techniques of thought by which to evaluate them. Clearly, neither scholarship nor intellectualism is at issue. What does seem central is the degree to which one has become a part of a tradition that emphasizes the critical examination of values in human action. Much of contemporary psychotherapy, like much of contemporary education, is willy-nilly devoted, sometimes competently and sometimes blunderingly, to aiding the individual to accept more fully his humanistic heritage.

It is well to be reminded here of Susanne Langer's wise observations:

> Because our moral life is negotiated so largely by symbols, it is more oppressive than the morality of animals . . . animals react only to the deed that is done or is actually imminent; . . . whereas we control each other's merely incipient behavior with fantasies of force . . . the power of symbols enables us not only to limit each other's actions, but to command them; not only to *restrain* one another, but to *constrain* . . . The story of man's martyrdom is a sequel to the story of his intelligence, his power of symbolical envisagement.
>
> For good or evil, man has this power of envisagement, which puts on him a burden that purely alert, realistic creatures do not bear—the burden of

understanding . . . So he must conceive a world and a law of the world, a pattern of life, and a way of meeting death [3].

This view applies as much to the personal situation as to the human condition generally. To a large extent, a man controls his own behavior through his envisagement of goals and the consequences of attempting their attainment. His conduct is a significant reflection of the way he has conceived the world and its law, the pattern of his life, and the way that death can best be met. This inevitable burden of understanding can at times grow unsupportable, and the traveler falls.

But the only means available for strengthening him is greater understanding. The major alternative is the view that men live out their destinies in worlds fashioned from the impersonal interaction of their genes and their environments, worlds in which they themselves exert little influence and no creativity. Attractively, such a conception permits the harried and lonely individual to plead irresponsibility when chivvied, as he often is, by apparently insuperable difficulties of one kind or another. But the relief born of dodging responsibility —the responsibility for implementing moral values—is short lived. It remains significant that psychotherapists, regardless of the theoretical language that they speak, typically characterize their patients as being, in some way and in some crucial segments of their lives, irresponsible and self-deluding.

In carrying the burden of understanding, the sciences of behavior can be a basic asset. Knowledge of a precise and systematic kind is closely relevant and even essential to responsible moral criticism. The discriminative scanning of values is more effective to the degree that it is more informed, more bulwarked by the tested, public propositions about events that science—and, probably, only science—can give. But science is not an alternative to the evaluation of goals, norms, and the criteria of sanity and desirable solutions to the recurrent problems of living that men must face.

Hilaire Belloc has somewhere written a couplet that seems oddly apropos:

> Always keep ahold of nurse
> For fear of finding something worse.

In the present context, the nurse is that insistent propensity, sometimes unselfconscious and sometimes highly sophisticated, for men to act as if their fate were in their own discharge and to think discriminatingly about how they may most wisely meet their responsibility. The exercising of this propensity is the heart of the humanistic tradition. It is the job of the behavioral sciences to strengthen it and to make it more widely available to men whose burden of understanding is currently extremely heavy.

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Counselors and Discipline

MICHAEL J. CORTALE

A SELECTED GROUP of school administrators throughout Nassau County, Long Island, were questioned regarding the counselor's role in the handling of disciplinary matters. The primary purpose of this study was to bring to light the viewpoints of the people directly concerned with a problem which is of major interest to counselors.

Study Procedure

A letter explaining the purpose of the study, the questionnaire, and a stamped return envelope were sent to 50 principals in 28 school systems in Nassau County. Within a period of three days after the first mailing, 48, or 96.0 per cent, of the principals returned usable opinionnaires. Although the study covered the senior high school, the junior-senior high school, and the junior high school, there were no significant differences in the replies to warrant a breakdown by school types. (See TABLE 1.)

Analysis of Findings

The data reveal that the number of principals who are using their present counseling staff to handle disciplinary matters is slight. Only one principal indicated that counselors were handling discipline as part of their regular duties while 44 administrators, or 91.7 per cent, showed that this was

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TABLE 1
Questionnaire

Questionnaire Items	*Categories by Per cent*			
	Great	*Moderate*	*Slight*	*None*
1. To what degree does your counseling staff handle disciplinary matters?	2.0	6.3	37.5	54.2
2. To what degree do you feel counselors should handle disciplinary problems?	2.0	16.7	31.3	50.0
3. To what degree do you feel the counselor's rapport with the student would be affected negatively if counselors handled disciplinary matters?	60.4	14.6	16.7	8.3
4. To what degree do you find that teachers refer disciplinary problems to counselors?	4.2	25.0	45.8	25.0
5. To what degree would a counselor's role as a disciplinarian strengthen the teacher's relationships with the counselor?	10.4	22.9	33.4	33.3
6. To what degree would a counselor's assistance in disciplinary matters be helpful to the administrator?	27.1	37.5	12.5	22.9
7. To what degree do you feel your counselors are adequately trained to handle most types of disciplinary matters?	18.7	48.0	25.0	8.3
8. To what degree do you feel the handling of disciplinary matters by the counselor would win the support of the parents in your community?	2.1	25.0	35.4	37.5

not usually done by counselors in their schools.

Twenty-four, or 50.0 per cent, of the principals believe that counselors should handle disciplinary problems. Nine principals, or 18.7 per cent, believe that this should be routine. The largest percentage in the "moderate degree" category came from the junior high schools.

From the figures, it is quite apparent that most principals feel the counselor's effectiveness would be limited if he assumed the role of a disciplinarian. It was also brought out that the rapport between the student and counselor would be affected negatively.

Contrary to the belief that teachers send disciplinary problems to the guidance counselor, the findings show that only a small percentage of the teachers participate in this practice.

According to the figures, it does not seem that the counselor who handles discipline increases his rapport with the classroom teacher. However, about one-third of the administrators feel that a teacher would be more understanding of the counselor's work if the counselor were to handle discipline.

It appears that administrators do not want counselors to handle such disciplinary problems but would consider their assistance important in preventing repetition of similar behavior matters in the future.

Most principals feel confident that their counseling staff could handle disciplinary problems successfully. However, the statistics shown in questionnaire items one and two demonstrate that administrators are cautious in asking counselors to handle discipline.

Some of the communities, it was brought out, lack a clear understanding of the counselor's role in a school setting. At the same time it was shown that possible resentment would be manifested by the public if the counselor were to handle behavior problems.

Near the end of the questionnaire, possible types of disciplinary problems were suggested and the administrators were asked if the counselors should be involved in them. Over 65 per cent agreed that counselors should handle matters such as failure to do homework or improper dress. Truancy, insolence to a teacher, and theft received greater than 85 per cent negative response.

Further expressions of principals' comments made on the questionnaire included:

We work on the theory that counselors attempt to have students evaluate themselves and their actions to reach the goal of self-discipline. It is counseling and not punitive action.

Counselors usually say they feel their rapport for guidance will be destroyed if they do discipline, but I don't think they really believe it. It is more placid not to be bothered with negative discipline. All guidance departments do some positive discipline just by counseling.

In our school, a counselor may involve himself in a discipline case after the assistant principal has handled it to its end. The counselor's involvement would be for purposes of preventing repetition.

Often a behavior problem in school needs someone to "relate to." The guidance staff can provide this help. If punishment is necessary, this is not the role of guidance people. Guidance personnel, however, can help define limits and insist pupils live within these limits.

Counselors cannot help but be involved in some disciplinary cases as counseling develops from disciplinary factors. If a counselor is to do a good job of counseling and wants the confidence and respect of the students, then he cannot be the person who will dole out punitive measures and demand their fulfillment. Unfortunately, most counselors working in close conjunction with the administration often are given assignments which can be followed by administrative policies.

In this school, discipline refers to an action for which immediate action must be taken. Our guidance department assists wherever possible in follow-up work. It tries to keep a pupil from becoming a discipline case but it does not mete out punishment.

Counselors should handle all behavior problems when the concern is "effecting change" in behavior. When punitive action becomes the concern, then the administration should take over.

Discipline should be handled by the administration. Guidance personnel should be used on a consultant basis and help correct further discipline problems through guidance.

Counselors should not devise the punishment, but they can and should work with both teachers and administrators after the occurrence and/or before in a preventive sense.

If discipline is turned over to counselors, their effectiveness is lost. The pupils who need their help most will shun them.

Conclusions

The majority of educational counselors believe that the guidance staff should not handle the punitive aspects of disciplinary problems. This opinion has been sup ported by the above findings. From the principals' comments, it does not appear that counselors are, or should be, completely divorced from the problem of discipline. There is common agreement that punitive measures should never be the responsibility of the counselor, for they would impair his relationship with the student. The counselor, however, can help both the student and administrator by assisting in an explanation of the reasons for punishment. Such aid would be geared toward the prevention of further discipline problems.

It is recommended that administrators utilize the services of the counselor in an advisory capacity in cases where future behavior can be improved. It is further suggested that if the counselor is involved in disciplinary matters, he should consider the effect such discipline may have on the student's academic grades and future recommendations to colleges and employers.

A HANDBOOK OF CLASS CHARACTERISTICS

In its annual meeting on October 26, the College Entrance Examination Board voted to publish in 1961–1962, on behalf of member colleges wishing to participate, a *Handbook of Class Characteristics* in looseleaf form so that participating member colleges may either submit material to the Board for inclusion in the Handbook prior to its distribution to the schools or send statements directly to the schools for inclusion in the Handbook after its distribution to schools. The Handbook is intended for use by school counselors in their work with college-bound students and will contain information similar to that which almost 200 colleges are now publishing separately and mailing to schools. Commonly referred to as freshman class profiles, these statements usually describe the colleges' most recently admitted freshman classes, including distributions of scores on admissions tests, distribution by rank in high school class, distribution by states or geographic regions, and other descriptive material. Also included in the Handbook will be a discussion of the proper use of such information in counseling.

An Index of Ease or Difficulty of Rehabilitation

THOMAS B. SCOTT and CARROLL I. STEIN

In most rehabilitation agencies there is at least an implicit judgment made regarding the expected time and effort needed for the rehabilitation of the physically handicapped individual. Type of disability and severity of disablement would seem to be major factors in such a judgment. It seems reasonable to assume that different disabilities and different degrees of severity of disablement may lead to differences in rates of progress and in expected outcomes. It should be helpful, therefore, to have some indices that would constitute standards for judging the time and effort necessary to rehabilitate an individual. These indices can be developed from data available in the counselee's personal data sheet or in agency records, *i.e.*, from "internal" or "immediate" criteria. Where more ultimate, external criteria pertaining to job success and job satisfaction (rehabilitation-outcome criteria) are not readily available—and such seems to be the case in present evaluations of rehabilitation effectiveness—"internal" criteria can be a major help to the agency that develops such criteria on its own rehabilitant populations.

The factors on which judgments regarding expected time and effort in rehabilitation are based may also be utilized in evaluating the adequacy of rehabilitation once completed. The length of time necessary to rehabilitate individuals with certain defined characteristics and the estimated independence of these individuals at closure are examples of "internal" criteria enabling useful comparisons of rehabilitant groups at the time of closure. However, the "internal" criteria selected should be related eventually to external criteria such as turnover rates, job level progression, and job satisfaction indices which, over a period of time, may be more important long-term outcomes of rehabilitation. Relationships between the internal (or immediate) criteria and the external (or ultimate) criteria then become important in the prediction of rehabilitation success or failure.

"Internal" criteria may also provide built-in controls for evaluating working hypotheses. For example, the agency may wish to experiment with a rehabilitation technique which differs from its usual approach. With the use of experimental and control groups, it is possible to evaluate the effectiveness of the new technique by checking against "internal" criteria.

The Minnesota Study

The feasibility of developing such an index for judging (a) expected time and effort necessary to rehabilitate an individual and (b) success in achieving rehabilitation was explored in a recent study of 1,637 counselees from the State Division of Vocational Rehabilitation (DVR) in Minneapolis and St. Paul [*1*]. The index was referred to as a measure of "ease or difficulty of rehabilitation." Three criteria were utilized in developing this index: (a) length of time to rehabilitate a counselee—time from being

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TABLE 1

Comparison of Rankings of Disability Groups on Three Criteria of Ease or Difficulty of Rehabilitation

Disability Group	N	Rank: Median Length of Rehabilitation Period	Rank: Median Weekly Wage at Closure	Rank: Proportion of "Self-Help" in Job-Finding
Loss or absence of lower extremity	72	1	6	1
Psychosis or psychoneurosis	82	2	12	4.5
Deformities or injury to back	117	3	2	6
Tuberculosis	202	4	4	10.5
Loss or absence of upper extremity	34	5	1	2
Deaf with speech impairment	33	6	5	18
Multiple impairment of extremities	63	7	11	7.5
Hard of hearing	95	8	10	13.5
Impairment of upper extremity	51	9	7.5	9
Deaf without speech impairment	29	10	16	17
Cardiac	106	11	7.5	15
Impairment of both lower extremities	73	12	13	10.5
Impairment of lower extremity	127	13	17	12
Diabetes	56	14	3	3
Epilepsy	58	15	14	13.5
Mental retardation	199	16	18	16
Diseases of the central nervous system	31	17.5	15	4.5
Paraplegia	39	17.5	9	7.5

accepted for rehabilitation until the case was successfully closed; (b) wages earned by the counselee after placement; and (c) the amount of "self-help" in finding a job, *i.e.*, whether or not he obtained the job on his own. This procedure assumed—that other things being equal—the longer it takes to close a case, the lower the comparative earning ability at closure and the less "self-help" contributed toward placement—the more "difficult" the rehabilitation.

Of the 1,637 counselees studied, 1,467 were classified into 18 disability groups listed in TABLE 1.[1] For the first criterion measure, length of rehabilitation period, the disability groups were ranked according to their median rehabilitation periods in months. The median for the total group of 1,637 was 25.0 months, with a range from 10.8 months (for those with loss or absence of lower extremity) to 38.5 months (for two groups, paraplegia and diseases of the central nervous system). The ranking on this criterion is shown in TABLE 1. It should be noted that this criterion is affected by the training time for those sent to school, given on-the-job training, and other types of training.[2] The second criterion, median weekly wage at closure, is also affected by training but the figures shown in TABLE 1 refer to the group of 1,467 whether or not they had training as part of their rehabilitation. Wages earned ranged from $67.00 a week for those with loss or absence of an upper extremity to $40.00 weekly for the mental retardation group. Median weekly wage for the 1,424 cases for whom wage data were available was $51.00, compared to a median weekly wage in the geographical area of $76.27.[3] The third criterion, proportion of "self-help" in job finding, is measured by the proportion of each group classified in the "No Help" category, as opposed to other methods of job-finding which required the assistance of others (such as

[1] Excluded were 170 cases not classifiable under the 18 major disability groups.

[2] Those interested in the effects of training time and other external variables should refer to the research bulletin [1].

[3] Computed from Employment Trends, Minnesota State Department of Employment Security, Series 1953 to 1957.

placement by trainer, counselor, or State Employment Service) or which did not entail counselee job-seeking activity (such as returning to former job). Of these 1,637 closed cases, 42 per cent found jobs without help.

The following Spearman rank order correlation coefficients are derived from the data in TABLE 1.

Criteria	*Rho*	*P*
Length of rehabilitation vs. weekly wage	+0.55	<0.05
Length of rehabilitation vs. self-help	−0.28	NS
Weekly wage vs. self-help	+0.44	<0.05

All three criteria indicate that three groups are relatively "easy" to rehabilitate, and two groups are "difficult" to rehabilitate. The "easy" groups are those with amputation of upper extremity, those with amputation of lower extremity, and those with deformities or injuries of the back. The "difficult" groups are those with epilepsy and those with mental retardation. Which criteria are most important to the agency will depend to a great extent on agency goals connected with case closure. For example, when case management is of great concern, the length of rehabilitation criterion is perhaps more meaningful. When "psychological adjustment" is the goal, the self-help criterion may have greater significance.

Obviously, this mode of determining rehabilitation ease or difficulty has several weaknesses. Some of the disability groups consist of only a few individuals. Note the range from 31 cases with central nervous system diseases to 202 tuberculosis cases. Furthermore, these criterion rankings are based on group averages and do not take group variability into consideration. These and other factors related to the criteria cannot all be taken into account at the same time. For example, one criterion, length of rehabilitation, is a function of age at acceptance, employment history, number of dependents, and rehabilitation lag.[4] Control of these many variables so depletes the cell frequencies that one can do little more than spell out trends across each variable, leaving it for the counselor to apply knowledge of each trend when pertinent to the case at hand. Counselor hypotheses, formed on the basis of one or more of these variables, can then be evaluated, using internal criteria within the agency situation. Those variables which consistently yield significant results when subjected to statistical tests may become predictors of rehabilitation ease.

The above deficiences notwithstanding, it has been indicated that an empirical method of determining the ease of difficulty of rehabilitation may be feasible. While this particular index has immediate relevance to the problem of ease or difficulty of rehabilitation, it is presented also as an illustration of the usefulness of agency records and data as internal criteria. While the present data are highly specific to a given situation, the methods for deriving them, for using them, and for evaluating them can be generalized.

[4] Rehabilitation lag is the time from onset of the disability to time of acceptance in the rehabilitation program.

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1. Stein, C. I., Dawis, R. V., England, G. W., & Lofquist, L. H. *Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation: IV. A Study of 1,637 DVR Counselees.* Bull. 24, Nov. 1958, Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

The Selection of School Counselors

GEORGE E. HILL

THE SELECTION of persons to engage in an occupation ought to fit into a sensible pattern involving the following steps.

1. Job analysis to provide guides for selection, training, placement, and evaluation. This entails establishment of a fundamental point of view regarding the nature of the work to be done.
2. Identification of persons who might do the job well and their selection preliminary to training.
3. Screening during the preparation program.
4. Training realistically related to the occupation. In a profession this involves a considerable period of pre-employment preparation plus continued growth on the job.
5. Placement of the worker in a position most nearly fitting his peculiar attributes.
6. Follow-up and evaluation to determine needed ajustments in the selection, training, and placement program.

Have school counselors been selected along lines such as these? An analysis of the literature on their selection and preparation covering the past two decades warrants the following answers.

First, the literature on the selection and preparation of school counselors is meager as compared with the general guidance literature. Only 14 of the 411 articles in the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* classified by Barry and Wolf [*12*] dealt with "counselor training."

Second, as a professional group, counselors and counselor educators have apparently done only a limited amount of research on the problems suggested by the six points listed above. Of the 136 articles based on research which Barry and Wolf [*12*] classified, two were on counselor training. A recent search for research reports [*26*] revealed a disappointingly small number, in fact no major longitudinal study of selection, training, placement, and evaluation.

Third, the guidance profession has arrived at a point where concerted attention to these problems is imperative.

The Need for Selection

Most writers on counselor education have expressed concern about selection [*3, 6, 52, 54*]. It has also been generally agreed that selection is a continuing process, not a single event [*7, 20, 37*]. Selection should begin prior to preparation, continue through the preparation program, and be involved in the placement and evaluation of the school counselor. The actual effects of inadequate selection have received little attention. One writer [*18*] has suggested that the general public puts counseling in the same category as kissing insofar as there is any need for selection and training prior to practicing the art!

There is widespread concern for selection both among counselors and among counselor educators. This has been shown by several surveys of selection practices [*33, 36, 41*] and by the pronouncements of counselor groups [*3, 6*]. Little attention has been given, however, to the problems of selection involved in the widespread practice of school administrators identifying and encouraging members of their teaching staffs to train for counseling work. It has been shown [*23, 27, 31, 43*] that school counselors come chiefly from the teaching ranks and

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largely from the staffs of the schools in which they become counselors.

Complexity of the School Counselor's Work

The problem of selecting persons to prepare for and engage in the work of the school counselor is greatly complicated by the following conditions.

1. There is a variety of roles and relationships involved in the work of any given counselor [3, 6, 29]. His position is complicated and demanding.

2. There is a diversity of skills, understandings, interests, and attitudes expected in the counselor's position from one school to another [10, 29, 34, 45]. One disturbing aspect of this variability is the evidence that many counselors are expected to perform duties that have little, if any, relation to what the profession has agreed they should be doing [40, 50].

3. There is a variety of personalities involved in the work of the counselor. Counselors themselves differ one from another. Studies of the characteristics of counselors in service have not produced anything resembling a standard personality pattern [38, 47].

4. There is a hierarchy of guidance positions, if we may take seriously the many pronouncements regarding the specialties in guidance and personnel work [4, 9, 17, 19]. One of the more troublesome distinctions is that which seeks to differentiate between the general school counselor and the counseling psychologist. The latter is emerging more and more as a person prepared beyond the master's degree level. This distinction, however, may not last since many school counselors are achieving advanced levels of training.

These four variables have been delineated briefly in order to underline a few facts of life about the selection of counselors.

1. Selection and training programs must be geared to some clear conception of the nature of the educational personnel work for which the trainee is headed [16].

2. Selection and training programs will become more realistic as the guidance profession evolves greater clarification of its own goals and responsibilities.

3. Selection and training programs that assume counseling to be the sole, or even major, activity of all school counselors are currently not realistically geared to the demands of school situations.

4. Selection and training programs must prepare workers of tremendous breadth. Currently the school counselor must fit a professional demand of almost impossible complexity.

5. Significant research assessing the effectiveness of selection procedures must cope with the evaluation of the counselor's effectiveness. This poses problems of considerable complexity.

Qualifications Needed by Counselors

The literature includes many pronouncements [2, 35, 49, 52] regarding the personal characteristics and the competencies needed by guidance and personnel workers. While relatively little of this literature may be said to be based upon research, the change in emphasis over the past two decades has been notable. This has constituted a shift from the search for a fixed list of desirable traits to general acceptance of the concept of the total personality pattern and its impact [27, 28, 46, 54]. There has also been a strong resurgence of emphasis upon the role of the counselor as an educator, a member of a team striving to achieve defined educational goals [46, 54].

Several good studies have been made of the tested characteristics and the reported status of counselors-in-training and of guidance workers in service [1, 14, 22, 29, 38, 42, 55]. These have not revealed that either group may be characterized in any standardized way. These studies of the known qualifications of counselors have not provided us with sure guides for the selection of school counselors except for certain characteristics known to be required to achieve the required graduate preparation—scholastic aptitude for graduate education, desire to secure such an education, personal qualities adequate to satisfy counselor educators and employers.

What has just been said is not intended to minimize the significance of the qualifications problem nor to discount the impor-

tance of counselor educators, counselors, and school officials seeking to clarify their concepts and their techniques of selection. Those concerned are going to continue to select persons for counselor training and for school counselor positions. The fact that there seems little promise of achieving blueprints of counselor qualifications only makes the selection problems more challenging; it does not erase the problems.

Perhaps one of the more hopeful research channels through which clearer selection procedures may emerge is that having to do with the evaluation of the work of the counselor. Such research, so far, has centered almost entirely upon the counseling process as such [*1, 2, 11, 29, 32, 39*]. This research has been scattered and diverse. There has been enough done, however, to provide much sharper tools for use in counselor education, especially in the practicum, for evaluating the effectiveness of trainees. The studies of counseling evaluation have depended heavily upon client reactions to counseling and upon expert ratings of counselors-in-action.

Another type of research that has been done in scattered sections and which gives promise of considerable help in the selection and training of school counselors has been the studies of what counselors do on-the-job [*40, 45, 48, 49, 51*]. These studies, among other things, raise serious questions regarding the definition of the counselor's proper role in the school. They reveal serious gaps between what is being done in counselor education and what is expected of counselors in the schools. That counselor education should merely reflect what school administrators expect of school counselors is hardly to be desired. Yet some reasonable harmonizing of job requirements and the selection-preparation processes is imperative.

Current Selection Practices

Those who become school counselors have been chiefly persons chosen from the teaching staff of the school in which they assume guidance responsibilities. To a considerable degree, school counselors are persons whom administrative officers identify as potentially good guidance workers [*23, 27, 31, 43*]. Little research has been done to determine the criteria used at this point in the selection process. There is little evidence that the universities recruit counselor-trainees or that the guidance workers themselves, individually or in groups, enter into the selection process.

Educational institutions report that their pre-training selection processes center about the question of eligibility and potential competence for graduate training [*33*]. Selection while in training centers is chiefly in the practicum aspect of preparation [*5, 24, 25, 33, 53*]. When the counselor-trainees get into supervised practice the counselor-educators give serious attention to the trainees' effectiveness and potential. Numbers of institutions administer various tests and inventories to trainees; but there is little evidence that actual selection transpires as a result of these having been administered.

In short, in practice, the selection of counselors transpires typically in about these steps:

First, a teacher becomes interested in guidance work, takes some training and is assigned guidance duties, or an administrator identifies a teacher on his staff whom he regards as potentially a good guidance worker and encourages him (or her) to seek training.

Second, the university screens applicants for counselor education as to their potential for pursuing graduate work. This screening varies from merely the requirement that the applicant hold a bachelor's degree to rigorous aptitude testing and the requirement of a high undergraduate point average.

Third, in the preparation program the trainee is assessed as to potential, usually in the practicum. In some institutions this involves careful and rigorous evaluation accompanied by a strong emphasis upon self-evaluation and planning. In many institutions this in-training evaluation is loose and unplanned.

There have recently been a few attempts at the development of instruments giving some promise of usefulness in counselor selection. These have centered upon the

measurement of attitudes toward and interest in educational and psychological training [13, 22, 30, 38, 44]. No one seems, as yet, to have attempted to develop a counseling aptitude test. One of the more interesting and promising selection techniques in counselor education programs has been the group process evaluation procedure. Counselor trainees have been subjected to various group experiences, under observation in most instances [21, 25, 53]. Ratings of their reactions in group discussion and group activities have been made by expert observers. These ratings have been shown to bear a surprisingly close relationship to their effectiveness in counseling as rated by other experts. Self-evaluations by counselor trainees have also been shown to bear a relationship to their counseling effectiveness [8, 21]. While such studies do not provide easy, pat selection procedures, they do indicate that attention to selection in the training processes can enrich the preparation program and provide information of considerable usefulness to the trainee. The selection processes that are emerging as most promising are those, then, that most nearly conform to accepted counseling theory. They are the processes that recognize the counselor trainee as a person whose dignity and worth will be enhanced by his being treated with the respect and care we insist we should accord our counseling clients.

Selection Through Certification

There has been some hope expressed that the processes of certification would ultimately become selective. While state after state has been added to the list now providing certification for school counselors, there is no real evidence that this has enhanced the selection process. The latest report [15] indicates that 37 states have certification for school counselors that has been classified as "mandatory." Four states have optional certification. The requirements vary from the very loosest minimum course requirements to the master's degree with specification as to preparation for the beginning counselor certificate. As a selection device certification depends primarily upon the practices of the training institutions.

Selection Through Supply and Demand

It is clear that there is currently a serious shortage of school guidance workers [31, 33]. There are some signs that the shortage situation has, if anything, had the effect of relaxing selection and preparation criteria. For example, one state that had been moving toward required certification for guidance workers found it necessary, with the demand created by NDEA provisions, to lower its minimum training requirement when part-time guidance workers were involved. It is clear that the school counselor profession faces a serious problem in seeking to keep up with the demand for guidance workers while, at the same time, trying to maintain reasonably high training requirements. The anomalous situation in which part-time counselors are assumed to need less preparation than full-time counselors puts the profession in an indefensible and uncomfortable position.

Selection Through Professional Action

All of the professional organizations have some sort of committee or commission concerned with selection and preparation. Most of the work of these groups, so far, has been in the pooling of opinions and the preparation of pronouncements. The more vigorous and extended of these have come from the counseling psychology groups. Without doubt, there is serious need for these professional groups to pool their efforts and to give concerted attention to such questions as the following.

1. How can the profession do a better job of encouraging research that will contribute to better selection and preparation of school counselors?

2. What can be done to make better use of the research already done on the selection and preparation of school counselors? What can be done to get more of the unpublished dissertation and thesis research into print and available to the profession?

3. What can be done to get the school counselors and the counselor educators into closer working relationship? Is it possible for these two groups to effect better working relationships with school administrators to

the end that the selection processes be better conceived and better coordinated?

4. Would it be possible for these groups to secure adequate financial aid for some fundamental, longitudinal studies of counselor selection, preparation, and evaluation? Could financial aid be secured for a truly definitive study of the proper role of the school counselor? Without more such studies, selection and preparation programs are bound to continue to be lacking in basic unity of meaning and approach.

The profession of the school counselor is in danger of losing the status and acceptance it has so recently achieved. Only the most earnest attention to such questions as those listed above will make it possible for the school counseling profession to achieve those goals we all recognize as essential to the proper maintenance of our educational system. "Selection" is an integral and important aspect of the larger, more comprehensive campaign to make of this profession a truly effective instrument of educational progress.

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REPORT ON PARENT EDUCATION AND THE BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES

Problems, issues, and needs in parent education, the subject of a recent conference held jointly by the Children's Bureau, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the Institute of Child Development and Welfare of the University of Minnesota, are reported in a new publication "Parent Education and the Behavioral Sciences." The research specialists centered their discussions around relationships between research findings and policies and practices in parent education, discussing such basic questions as: How is parental behavior determined? Can it be modified? If so, by what means and under what conditions? The conferees also discussed the gaps in present knowledge in the field of parent-child relationships, child development and family interaction. These gaps have been broken down into six broad classifications in the report.

Single copies of the Children's Bureau Publication No. 379 are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., for 25 cents.

Conformity and Achievement in College

EVERETT D. ERB

Frequent allusions have been made to the importance, both to the individual and society, of conforming versus non-conforming behavior within a society. Such writers as Fromm [*8*] and Riesman [*10*] have postulated over-conformity as one of the gravest dangers to freedom and democracy. Yet surprisingly few attempts have been made to quantify conformity within a given population and subsequently to relate the measure to a selected behavioral criterion.

The study reported here is, therefore, an exploratory attempt to develop a technique for measuring conformity and to relate this measure to college grade earning ability. Conformity has been defined as the tendency to accept and be directed by the socially accepted codes, customs, and mores [*11*]. However, the present measure of conformity is based upon a rationale similar to that used in the S-O Rorschach Test whereby conformity and non-conformity are based upon the relative numbers of original and popular responses. That is, conformity and non-conformity are to be based herein upon popular versus idiosyncratic placement of items in a Q-sort. Operationally, popular placements are interpreted as conformity, and idiosyncratic placements as non-conformity.

Research [*2, 4–6*] reported in the areas of conformity, originality, and creativity tends to be distinctly favorable to originality as an asset to character. The question as to how much and what kind of conformity is desirable, however, remains by and large unanswered. Blake [*3*] hints at one of the difficulties in the dichotomous nature of these conclusions in his argument that conformity behavior is a function of both situational and personal factors in interaction.

More specifically related to the present criterion of academic achievement, Getzels and Jackson [*9*] found groups high in creativity but not in IQ, and high in IQ but not in creativity, to be equally superior in school achievement. The conclusion that creativity is unrelated to academic achievement appears to follow. Anderson [*1*], however, asserts that, "Youth in our culture are taught not to think for themselves, but to seek and be content with rewards and approval as social substitutes for the satisfactions of intrinsic and meaningful originality. . . ." Moreover, ". . . most of the curriculum at all levels represents a closed system of education: it is fixed-answer learning" [*1, p. 7*].

Accordingly, conformity might be postulated as an asset in college grade getting ability and suggests the hypothesis to be tested in the present study, namely, that high conformity groups both male and female will receive significantly higher grade point averages than will low conformity groups. The additional hypothesis that males and females differ in conformity will likewise be tested. Furthermore, the present study seeks to investigate conformity on several cognitive levels: (1) self "most like me"; (2) self "least like me"; (3) ideal self "most like me"; (4) ideal self "least like me"; and (5) total conformity.

Subjects, Instruments and Procedure

The entering freshman class of approximately 600 at East Texas State College, Commerce, Texas, was given The School and College Ability Test in September of 1959. The 25 males and 25 females scoring just above and just below their respective medians were the subjects of the present

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investigation. These 100 individuals of presumably similar ability were administered a Q-sort October 8, 1959. Sorts were obtained for "self as you are" and "self as you would like to be."

The Q-sort was developed empirically by the writer [7] for the investigation of cognitive structures thought to be related to college academic achievement. It contained 60 items divided into three areas and four valences. The areas were self, teachers, and educational ideas, and the valences were positive, neutral, ambivalent, and negative. Thus, one positive self item read, "I feel I am a superior person." The neutral version was, "I feel I am neither a superior nor an inferior person," the ambivalent, "I sometimes feel I am a superior person and sometimes that I am inferior," and finally the negative form read, "I feel I am an inferior person." Thus, there were five similar blocks of items representative of each area.

A forced-sort procedure was used calling for placement of the 60 items by the subject

TABLE I

Most Popular Items in Each Q-Sort Category

Item No.	*Item*	*No. of Placements*	*"Commonality" Rank Order of Item*
Self "Most Like Me" Placement			
33	I feel I should make high grades.	25*	1
5	I feel I am neither a superior nor an inferior person.	23	2
37	I feel I should make average grades.	20	3
2	I feel I would like being a teacher.	18	4
41	I sometimes feel I should make high grades and sometimes feel content if my grades are passing.	11	6
42	I sometimes feel I express my emotions freely and at other times that I do not.	11	6
58	I am moody.	11	6
19	I feel I am optimistic.	16	6
34	I feel I express my emotions freely.	16	6
Ideal-Self "Most Like Me" Placement			
33	I feel I should make high grades.	34	1
2	I feel I would like being a teacher.	27	2
49	I am not moody.	23	3
40	I tend to live equally for the present, the past, and the future.	22	4
5	I feel I am neither a superior nor an inferior person.	16	6
Self "Least Like Me" Placement			
1	I feel I am a superior person.	45	1
4	I feel I am sophisticated.	26	2
13	I feel I am an inferior person.	24	3
45	I am content with my grades if they are passing.	19	4
14	I feel I would dislike being a teacher.	17	5
18	I like early morning classes.	14	6
31	I feel I am pessimistic.	13	7
Ideal-Self "Least Like Me" Placement			
13	I feel I am an inferior person.	38	1
58	I am moody.	34	2
1	I feel I am a superior person.	32	3
31	I feel I am pessimistic.	22	4
59	I feel tense and nervous when talking to teachers.	21	5
45	I am content with my grades if they are passing.	18	6
14	I feel I would dislike being a teacher.	17	7

* This figure means that on the "self as you are" sort 25 of the 100 subjects placed this item as one of his three items in the "most like me" box. Since no other item was given so many placements, it is assigned a "commonality" score of 1 and is an extremely high-conformity item.

along a continuum from "most like me" to "least like me" according to the following distribution: 3, 5, 7, 9, 12, 9, 7, 5, 3.

Conformity scores were calculated using the six placements in the two end boxes only, since it was felt that the sharpest distinctions made by subjects would occur using these extreme categories of acceptance and rejection. Each item was thus assigned a conformity value according to commonality of placement in these categories. The procedure was repeated for both self and ideal-self sorts. For example the item, "I feel I should make high grades," was placed in the "most like me" category on the self sort by 25 persons making it the most placed item and earning it a conformity score of one. Low scores thus signify high conformity and high scores, low conformity. In the ideal-sort this same item was placed in the "most like me" category by 34 persons and again earned a conformity score of one. In the self sort the item was placed in the "least like me" category by a single person thereby earning a popularity score in this classification of 33, indicating it was a non-conformity item. In the ideal-sort the item was unplaced and therefore did not enter into conformity calculations on this level. In like manner all items were assigned a rank order conformity value for each of the four categories. The highest conformity items in each are presented in Table 1.

The next step involved the assignment of item conformity scores to each subject's individual placements. Thus in the self sort if an individual had placed items 33, 5, and 37 in the "most like me" category, his conformity score in this classification would have been one plus two plus three, a total of six, and an extremely high conformity score. The same calculation was then made for "least like me" placement and for both categories on the ideal-attitude level. The total conformity score was the composite of these four scores. A sample compilation of scores for a single individual is presented in Figure 1.

Conformity, it may be noted, is, therefore, conformity to the perceptions of the group itself and not to external criteria. The group might be said to determine its own norms to which its members adhere or deviate in varying degrees. Given a distinctly different population, different norms (and degrees of conformity) might appear. The described measure is thereby consistent with the idea that conformity may be independent of a particular behavior. Within any sub-population, deviant behavior (in terms of the total population) may well be conforming behavior in terms of the smaller group. Conformists and non-conformists may exist only in relation to defined populations.

The degree of conformity for males and females was then compared by using the *t*-test. Since college achievement is known to differ for the two sexes and since conformity was found to differ significantly as reported in the section devoted to results, it was decided to test the hypotheses of differential achievement by conformity groups separately by sex. Both males and females

FIGURE 1

Illustrative Q-Sort Conformity Scores for One Subject

Subject No.		*Item Number Placed in Each Category*	*Rank-Order Value of Each Item*	*Total Conformity Scores*
47	Self "most like me"	39, 53, 21	30, 41, 46	117
	Ideal-self "most like me"	54, 48, 33	12, 26, 1	39
	Self "least like me"	49, 4, 1	8, 2, 1	11*
	Ideal-self "least like me"	4, 32, 46	8, 9, 12	29
	Total Conformity			196

* This subject conforms to a high degree on the "least like me" categories for both self and ideal-self and is highly non-conformist on self "most like me."

were grouped on five conformity measures, *i.e.*, self "most like me," self "least like me," ideal-self "most like me," ideal-self "least like me," and total conformity. Groups of 20 higher conformity females were compared with 20 lower conformity females in each instance. The same procedure was followed for males with subjects nearest the median on each conformity measure being dropped from the study.

The dependent variable upon which these groups were compared was the grade point average calculated at the end of the first semester of the freshman year, January, 1960. A scoring system of four points for A's, three points for B's, two points for C's, one point for D's, and zero points for F's was used. The total grade points earned was divided by the total hours taken by the student. Courses such as orientation, physical education, and other one-hour credit courses were excluded from the calculations.

Differences between means of the conformity groups on The School and College Ability Test were then tested for significance. None was significant, and the ability factor was assumed to have been equalized. A simple analysis of variance was used to test the significance of the difference between means of group grade point achievement.

Results

The means and standard deviations for male and female conformity scores are presented in TABLE 2.

TABLE 2

Means and Standard Deviations of Conformity Scores

	Males	*Females*
Mean Conformity Score	155	120
Standard Deviation	51.3	36.9

The mean conformity score of the male group (155) was found to be higher than the mean for the females (120), indicating that higher conformity exists among females. Moreover, the standard deviation was 36.9 for females compared with 51.3 for males, indicating greater variability among males. The *t*-value for the difference between these means was 9.04, considerably in excess of the 0.01 level of confidence. The null hypothesis that male and female conformity is the same was therefore rejected. These results tend to enhance confidence in the validity of the present measure of conformity since females are generally held to conform to a greater degree than males in our society.

The analysis of variance for self "most like me" conformity is presented in FIGURE 2. The analysis of each of the other categories was the same throughout.

FIGURE 2

Analysis of Variance of Female Self "Most Like Me" Conformity

Source of Variation	*Degrees of Freedom*	*Sum of Squares*	*Mean Square*
Conformity	1	0.42	0.42
Within	38	17.16	0.452
TOTAL	39	17.58	

$$F_{1,\,38} = \frac{0.42}{0.452} = 0.929$$

The mean grade point averages for the female conformity groups on the various levels and the F-values obtained for differences between these means are presented in TABLE 3.

In accordance with these results the hypothesis that female conformity groups are the same in academic achievement was re-

TABLE 3

Means of Grade Point Averages and F-Values for Female Conformity Groups

	Lower Conformity Mean G.P.A.	*Higher Conformity Mean G.P.A.*	*F-Value*
Self "most like me"	2.43	2.24	0.929
Self "least like me"	2.11	2.54	6.434*
Ideal "most like me"	2.34	2.39	0.05
Ideal "least like me"	2.09	2.42	4.64*
Total Conformity	2.16	2.61	6.83*

* Significant beyond 0.05 level confidence.

jected. Three of the five groupings, *i.e.*, self "least like me," ideal "least like me" conformity as well as total conformity were found to differ significantly beyond the 0.05 level of confidence. Since the difference in achievement is in every instance in favor of the higher conformity group, it may be concluded that conformity is an asset for females in college grade achievement. However, "most like me" conformity on both the attitude and ideal-attitude levels did not discriminate between achievement groups.

The means of grade point averages for male conformity groups on the various levels and the F-values obtained for differences between these means are presented in TABLE 4.

TABLE 4

Means of Grade Point Averages and F-Values for Male Conformity Groups

	Lower Conformity Mean G.P.A.	*Higher Conformity Mean G.P.A.*	*F-Value*
Self "most like me"	1.58	1.54	0.03
Self "least like me"	1.62	1.77	0.43
Ideal "most like me"	1.77	1.48	1.45
Ideal "least like me"	1.62	1.63	0.00
Total Conformity	1.77	1.49	1.25

The null hypothesis that male conformity groups are the same in achievement cannot be rejected. No significant differences between means were discovered for any of the conformity groupings.

Re-Analysis of Male Conformity

Based upon the foregoing results two conclusions seemed possible. Either conformity is related to achievement for females but not for males, or the lack of relationship discovered for males is a phenomenon unique to the present procedure. It seems possible that as calculated male conformity may have been obscured and/or rendered insensitive by the existing greater conformity of the females of the study. If so, it is then possible that conformity scores based upon male sorts alone might serve to confirm or reject the conclusion of no relationship for males.

This analysis was carried out with conformity scores based upon male placements only. The new means of grade point averages for male conformity groups on the various levels, and the F-values obtained for differences between these means are presented in TABLE 5.

TABLE 5

Means of Grade Point Averages and F-Values for Male Conformity Groups

	Lower Conformity Mean G.P.A.	*Higher Conformity Mean G.P.A.*	*F-Value*
Self "most like me"	1.61	1.75	0.36
Self "least like me"	1.81	1.42	2.38
Ideal "most like me"	1.58	1.73	1.12
Ideal "least like me"	1.66	1.67	0.00
Total Conformity	1.76	1.45	1.65

Since none of the differences between means were found to be significant, the hypothesis of no difference in grade point achievement for male conformity groups once again cannot be rejected.

Discussion

For the female population of the study the hypothesis that conformity is positively related to college academic achievement was confirmed. It would appear as if girls within a given group who describe themselves by Q-sort behavior in similar fashion subsequently achieve significantly higher grades than do those who describe themselves uniquely according to the norms of this same group. However, the finding was not found to be true for the male groups in the study. For males no significant relationship was found between the conformity measures and grades received. A possible interpretation is that female conformity includes academic school achievement as a culturally desirable symbol, whereas male conformity precludes this particular behavior. More simply, grade achievement may have higher positive valence to females as a whole than to males as a whole. Therefore, conformity in the first instance leads to

higher achievement and in the second to no difference in achievement.

On the other hand, the results may merely indicate that the kind of conformity measured by the present instrument taps a significant relationship for females but not for males. Research utilizing study habit items and other areas not included in the present Q-sort instrument might discover different relationships and find different kinds of male conformity to be related to the criterion.

Summary

Operationally defined groups of higher conformity males and females were compared with groups of lower conformity males and females in college grade achievement. The higher conformity females achieved better than the lower conformity females at beyond the 0.05 level of confidence. No differences were found in male performance. Conformity was found to be significantly higher for females than for males. An empirical measure of conformity was developed based upon the degree of commonality in Q-sort behavior which appears to have considerable potential for future research into the optimum conditions of conforming versus non-conforming personalities.

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WAYNE STATE OFFERS 10-WEEK STUDY TOUR OF EUROPE

The 14th Annual European Travel Study Program in Comparative Education, sponsored by the College of Education, Wayne State University, is scheduled to begin June 24, 1961, under the leadership of Dr. William Reitz, Professor of Education. The 10-week tour which may be taken for two to six hours of graduate or undergraduate credit has an itinerary of England, Holland, Germany, Luxembourg, France, Switzerland, Monaco, Italy, San Marino, Greece, Islands of the Aegean, Istanbul, Austria, and Liechtenstein. Information about costs and eligibility may be obtained from Dr. Reitz, College of Education, Wayne State University, Detroit 2, Michigan.

ATTITUDES TOWARD BLIND COUNSELORS IN STATE REHABILITATION AGENCIES

HERBERT RUSALEM

During a period of four and one-half years (January 1955 to September 1959), the Industrial Home for the Blind, in cooperation with the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, provided a program of professional training in the rehabilitation of blind persons. Among the 70 students who completed the program during that period, a substantial number were preparing for positions in state rehabilitation agencies. The large majority of these students were also enrolled in counselor-training programs in various colleges and universities. Despite the fact that more than 80 per cent of the students in the IHB Professional Training Program were blind, well over 75 per cent of them found employment in rehabilitation programs for blind persons.

Continuing contacts with coordinators of rehabilitation counselor-training programs in colleges and universities all over the country have indicated that blind students continue to constitute a proportion of their enrollment. In view of the persistent interest of legally blind persons in careers in rehabilitation counseling, it was felt that a survey of vocational opportunities for this group would be valuable to the students and their university advisers. In addition, it was felt that rehabilitation counselors serving blind students might be able to use such data in counseling clients interested in this area.

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Grateful acknowledgment is expressed by the author to Harry Spar and Martha Ellington of the Industrial Home for the Blind for their assistance with the study.

Study Procedures

In spring, 1959, a questionnaire was mailed to 88 state rehabilitation agencies. These agencies were classified as follows:

State Agencies serving blind persons exclusively	36
State Agencies serving a general caseload, excluding blind clients	36
State Agencies serving as general caseload, including blind clients	16

Henceforth, in this paper, these three types of agencies will be referred as Agencies for the Blind, Agencies for the Non-Blind, and General Agencies.

On March 31, 1959, completed questionnaires had been submitted by 44 agencies. At that time, a follow-up letter was addressed to the non-respondents. By April 30, 1959, subsequent to the one mail follow-up, returns had been received from 57 different agencies, constituting 64.7 per cent of the group contacted. The returns were distributed as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Distribution of Responses to the Questionnaire

Type of Agency	*Number Responding*	*% Responding*
Agencies for the Blind	27	75.0
Agencies for the Non-Blind	17	47.3
General Agencies	13	81.2
Total	57	64.7

A number of additional responses were received subsequent to April 30, 1959. However, they were not included in the data.

The 57 respondent agencies employed a

TABLE 2

Distribution of Blind and Partially Seeing Counselors in State Rehabilitation Agencies

Type of Agency	*Total Counselors Employed*	*Blind and Partially Seeing Counselors* *N*	*%*
Agencies for the Blind	161	74	46.0
Agencies for the Non-Blind	518	0	0.0
General Agencies	380	20	5.2
TOTAL	1059	94	8.9

total of 1,059 rehabilitation counselors. Of these, 94 (8.9 per cent) were blind and partially seeing.[1] The distribution according to type of agency is shown in TABLE 2.

Study Findings

In this sample of agencies serving non-blind persons, there was not a single report of a legally blind person employed. Among general agencies serving both blind and non-blind persons, about 1 in 20 counselors is legally blind. However, some of the comments appearing on the questionnaires suggested that a proportion of these blind counselors had specialized functions relating to blind clients exclusively within the general agency. The degree to which these blind counselors served non-blind clients could not be determined from the responses.

The 57 State Rehabilitation Agency respondents employed 310 administrators and supervisors. Of these, 29 (9.2 per cent) were blind and partially seeing. The distribution by type of agency is shown in TABLE 3.

There were no blind administrators or supervisors reported by the respondent agencies serving a non-blind clientele. Among the general agencies, it is unknown how many of the five blind administrators and supervisors serve non-blind caseloads.

Twenty-two of the 27 respondent agencies for the blind (81.5 per cent) employed one or more blind counselors. The range was 1 to 11. Of the 74 blind counselors employed by agencies for the blind, 45 (60.8 per cent) were totally blind and 29 (39.2 per cent) were partially seeing. The proportion of blind counselors on staffs of agencies for the blind varied widely. A few state agencies had counseling staffs composed entirely of blind persons, but these were mostly states with small numbers of personnel. The states with no blind counselors also tended to be states with modest programs. Among state agencies for the blind employing five or more counselors, the proportion of totally blind counselors ranged from 20 to 70 per cent and of partially seeing counselors from 20 to 65 per cent.

Among agencies serving general caseloads, including the blind, the highest proportion of blind counselors on the staff was 17.2 per cent. For all the general agencies surveyed in this study, the total proportion of totally blind counselors was 4.8 per cent and partially seeing 3.1 per cent. The state agencies serving non-blind caseloads did not employ any totally blind or partially seeing counselors.

Sixteen of the 24 legally blind administrators and supervisors employed by agencies for the blind were totally blind. The proportion of the totally blind to the partially seeing among the administrators and supervisors is comparable to the statistics derived for the counselors. Fifteen of the

TABLE 3

Distribution of Blind and Partially Seeing Administrators & Supervisors in State Rehabilitation Agencies

Type of Agency	*Total Supervisors Employed*	*Blind and Partially Seeing Supervisors* *N*	*%*
Agencies for the Blind	69	24	34.8
Agencies for the Non-Blind	156	0	0.0
General Agencies	85	5	5.9
TOTAL	310	29	9.2

[1] By definition, in this study, blind and partially seeing counselors are legally blind. Totally blind counselors have no useful vision. Partially seeing counselors use residual vision for some aspects of their job functioning.

27 agencies for the blind (55.6 per cent) employed one or more administrators and supervisors. Although 81.5 per cent of the agencies for the blind employ one or more counselors who are blind, 55.6 per cent of these agencies employ administrators and supervisors who are blind. The small number of blind administrators and supervisors employed by general agencies does not permit further analysis. No blind administrators or supervisors were employed by agencies serving the non-blind.

The respondent agencies indicated their estimate of the performance of totally blind and partially seeing counselors. The responses appear in TABLE 4.

Since agencies serving the non-blind employed no blind counselors, there were no responses on this item from this group. When the data for agencies for the blind and general agencies are combined, it is found that 7.0 per cent of the respondent agencies in these groups report that totally blind counselors are superior to seeing counselors. The comparable figure for the partially seeing counselors is 3.5 per cent.

TABLE 5 indicates the expressed attitudes of the respondent agencies toward hiring blind counselors.

The greatest preference for totally blind and partially seeing counselors is among those agencies which use them the most. In general, partially seeing counselors are preferred to totally blind counselors even though TABLE 4 suggests that totally blind counselors tend to be rated higher in performance.

TABLE 4

Estimates of the Performance of Blind and Partially Seeing Counselors as Compared to Non-Visually Handicapped Counselors in the Same Agency

Rating of Performance	Agency for Blind: Totally Blind %	Agency for Blind: Partially Seeing %	General Agency: Totally Blind %	General Agency: Partially Seeing %
Superior to Seeing Counselors	14.8	7.4	0.0	0.0
Equal to Seeing Counselors	55.5	33.3	46.1	30.7
Inferior to Seeing Counselors	7.4	3.7	15.3	7.7
No Response	22.2	55.5	38.4	61.8
TOTAL	99.9	99.9	99.8	100.2

Well over 90 per cent of the respondent agencies reported that there are no merit system provisions limiting the hiring of totally blind and partially seeing counselors. Only three agencies reported such limitations. Two of these agencies served non-blind populations and one was an agency for the blind. The major limitation noted by these agencies was the inability of blind persons to drive a car. Two of them also reported the more general limitation—"physically able to do the job." Apparently, this general provision had some bearing on the hiring of blind counselors in these agencies.

TABLE 5

Attitudes Toward Hiring Blind Counselors

Response	Agencies for Blind: Blind %	Agencies for Blind: Partials %	Agencies for Non-Blind: Blind %	Agencies for Non-Blind: Partials %	General Agencies: Blind %	General Agencies: Partials %	Total %: Bl.	Total %: Part.
Prefer Blind Counselors	14.8	25.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.7	7.0	14.0
No Preference for Blind or Seeing Counselors	55.5	48.1	23.5	41.1	69.2	46.1	49.3	45.6
Prefer Seeing Counselors	7.4	0.0	41.1	35.2	15.3	30.7	19.3	17.5
No Response	22.2	25.9	35.2	23.5	15.3	15.3	24.6	22.8
TOTALS	99.9	99.9	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	100.2	99.9

Varying proportions of the respondent agencies reported aspects of the job description for rehabilitation counselor which limit the hiring of totally blind and partially seeing counselors. The percentage of agencies reporting such limitations was:

Agencies for the Blind	18.5%
Agencies for the Non-Blind	52.9%
General Agencies	23.0%

Limitations in Employment

The major reported deterrent to the hiring of blind counselors, as reflected in the job description, was the inability to drive a car. Three other deterrents were mentioned much less frequently. In descending order they are:

1. Difficulties in record-keeping.
2. Difficulties in reading materials.
3. Physically unable to do the job.

Of the 23 deterrents offered, 15 (65.1 per cent) concerned automobile driving.

The agencies reported on their perceptions of the most serious limitations imposed by blindness on an individual attempting to do the rehabilitation counseling job. The lack of mobility was the limitation mentioned with the greatest frequency (84.2 per cent of all respondent agencies). Three other limitations also indicated with great frequency were: Reading Records (63.0 per cent), Recording and Filling Out Forms (57.8 per cent), and the Inability to Observe the Environment and the Client's Appearance (45.5 per cent). Other limitations mentioned less frequently were: Lack of Work Experience, Client's Reaction to the Counselor's Blindness, Relationships with Other Staff Members, Personality Problems, Poor Attitudes Toward the Counseling Job, Over-Identification with Blind Clients, Lack of Objectivity in Attitude Toward Blindness, and the Cost of Providing Special Assistance to the Blind Counselor. Agencies for the blind tended to see these limitations as less restricting than did the other two types of agencies.

Although agencies for the blind tend to see blindness as less limiting than do other agencies, all agree that mobility is a major limitation for blind persons in the performance of the rehabilitation counseling job. Even in agencies for the blind, three out of four see mobility as a deterrent. All the agencies for the non-blind perceive mobility as a limitation. Almost two-thirds of all agencies responding to the questionnaire report the reading of records as a limitation. Even among agencies for the blind, more than half the respondents see this as a deterrent to job performance. Similar data are reported for case recording and filling out forms.

It is significant that the three major limitations perceived by these agencies are mechanical ones. They are closely related to the physical effects of blindness. The visual handicap limits both mobility and reading. On the other hand, "psychological effects of blindness" are not widely perceived as deterrents to job performance in rehabilitation counseling. Relatively few of the respondents listed such items as: Client Reaction to Blindness, Personality, Relationships with Other Staff Members, and Poor Attitudes Toward the Job.

As these agencies see it, blind rehabilitation counselors must find successful ways of coping with mobility problems and with the necessity of reading records and filling out forms. Although almost half of the respondents indicate a concern about the inability to observe the environment and the client, it is interesting to note that general agencies consider this less of a problem than agencies for the blind. However, this response is sufficiently frequent to suggest that blind rehabilitation counselors must work out techniques for overcoming this limitation.

Preferred Work Situations

Almost 9 out of 10 of the respondent agencies felt that qualified totally blind and partially seeing persons should be prepared for careers in rehabilitation counseling. However, only 70.5 per cent of the agencies for the non-blind responded positively to this item. The reason most frequently offered for not encouraging totally blind and partially seeing individuals to seek careers

in the field is: "Limitations of the Handicap," with special reference to mobility.

The respondents ranked the types of agencies in which they felt that blind rehabilitation counselors could function best. The following were mentioned in descending order of frequency:

1. Public Agency for the Blind.
2. Private Agency for the Blind.
3. Rehabilitation Center.
4. Sheltered Workshop.
5. Hospital.
6. Private Rehabilitation Agency for the Seeing.
7. Public Rehabilitation Agency for the Seeing.

All types of respondent agencies tended to agree on these rankings.

The group rankings reveal the overwhelming feeling that blind counselors could function best in agencies for the blind. All types of agencies invariably ranked agencies for the blind—public and private—as their first and second choices. With the exception of the general agencies, there is a feeling that the last place in which blind counselors could function successfully is a Public Rehabilitation Agency for the Seeing. It is difficult to know if this feeling is engendered by doubts concerning the ability of blind counselors to meet the job demands or the reality factor that blind counselors will have great difficulty in finding employment in such agencies.

Respondents indicated areas of functioning as differentiated from professional preparation in which blind students should receive special training. These areas are reported in Table 6.

A number of other responses received one mention each. There is good agreement among the various types of agency respondents concerning the personal needs of blind rehabilitation counseling trainees. The fact that mobility leads the list is consistent with the data previously presented. The total list offers some clues to blind rehabilitation counseling students and their counselors relative to aspects of personal adjustment which are considered desirable by potential employers in the field.

Discussion and Conclusions

Mobility constitutes a focal point for agency resistance to hiring blind rehabilitation counselors. However, experience reveals that mobility does not necessarily constitute a major barrier for blind counselors in metropolitan areas. On the other hand, travel in rural areas may be less feasible. Secretarial and clerical services are a second focus of resistance. In this connection, however, considerable numbers of blind counselors seem to be functioning satisfactorily, meeting the record-keeping and reading requirements of jobs in agencies for the blind. Could they also meet similar requirements in agencies for non-blind clients? Are such techniques as the use of electronic recording devices, the re-deployment of clerical staff, the services of volunteers, and the use of special funds equally applicable to rehabilitation agencies serving general caseloads? The answers to these questions may rest upon the ultimate testing of the hypothesis that state rehabilitation agencies for the blind are comparable in their job demands

TABLE 6

Areas of Functioning in Which Blind Rehabilitation Counseling Trainees Should Receive Training

Area of Functioning	*% of Respondent Agencies Mentioning* — *Agencies for the Blind*	*Agencies for the Non-Blind*	*General Agencies*	*Total*
Mobility	92.6	82.3	92.0	89.4
Personal Appearance and Self-care	81.4	76.4	61.9	75.5
Should Have Personal Counseling	70.5	52.9	77.0	66.7
Braille	66.7	64.7	53.8	63.1
Should Have Psychological Diagnosis	48.0	47.0	69.2	52.6
Paid Work Experience	44.4	47.0	61.0	49.0
Posture	44.4	17.6	38.4	35.0
Handwriting	31.8	29.0	38.4	31.5

to other state rehabilitation agencies. Research is needed to test this hypothesis of similarity. Since increasing numbers of blind students are entering rehabilitation counselor-training programs and seeking employment in the field, it becomes correspondingly more important to ascertain the factual basis for accepting and rejecting blind job applicants for state rehabilitation counseling agency positions.

The data in this study seem to point to the following conclusions:

1. Employment opportunities for blind counselors exist in State Rehabilitation Agencies for Blind Persons, and, to a lesser degree, in General State Rehabilitation Agencies serving both blind and non-blind clienteles. Currently, there are few, if any, opportunities for blind counselors in State Rehabilitation Agencies serving non-blind persons, exclusively. This lack of opportunity seems related to the isolation of these agencies from the problems of blindness, resulting in a devaluation of the capacities of blind rehabilitation counselors.

Changes in this attitude of exclusion may occur when:

a. Scientific studies performed by qualified investigators with experience in service to blind persons explore the job demands of rehabilitation counseling and indicate the real physical capacities demanded in this work.

b. State Rehabilitation Agencies for the Non-Blind apply the rehabilitation philosophy of adaptation to blind applicants for rehabilitation counseling positions to the same degree that these expect industry to make such adaptations for their own clients.

c. Ways are found to inform agencies serving the non-blind about the potentialities of blind persons. This author, in his contacts with such agencies, has found them to be, in some respects, fearful of working with blind persons. Whatever the values of separating rehabilitation caseloads on the basis of visual and other handicaps, it has apparently achieved the effect of leaving many rehabilitation counselors, supervisors, and administrators uninformed about blindness.

2. There is need for a re-examination of state-wide merit system and agency policy limitations on the hiring of blind rehabilitation counselors. This holds particularly true of the automobile driving skills. Is it possible that blind applicants could be certified for positions that fall into this category?

3. There is a need for a thoroughgoing study of the employed blind rehabilitation counselor with a view to assessing the techniques he uses in managing "paper-work," mobility, and other aspects of the job. The design for such a study could be readily constructed and might attract support from national agencies. The findings may have value in influencing employer attitudes in State Rehabilitation Agencies.

POCKET GUIDE LISTS FREE FILMS ON MANY SUBJECTS

More than 335 films are being made available without charge to adult groups by American businesses, industries, and trade associations. From a quarter-hour to a half-hour in length, the films range in subject from those dealing with grooming and manners for teenagers to hobbies, sports, and how-to-do-it subjects. Most of the films are in color. A free catalog, "The Pocket Guide to Free Films," may be obtained by writing to Modern Talking Picture Service, Inc., 3 East 54th Street, New York 22, New York.

College Courses in Careers

EDWARD M. CARTER and ROBERT HOPPOCK

COURSES IN CAREERS have been discussed from time to time in meetings of the American College Personnel Association, the National Vocational Guidance Association, and the regional associations of college placement officers over the past 30 years.

Interest in such courses has been expressed by counselors who are pressed for time, by placement officers who want to be more than traffic directors, and by company representatives who are disturbed by student ignorance of the employment market.

Skepticism has been expressed as to the willingness of college faculties and administrations to accept courses in careers as academically respectable. There is no doubt that some faculties have rejected proposals to offer such courses and that other faculties would do so if the issue arose.

Nevertheless, career courses have been offered in liberal arts and other colleges ever since 1923, when Edgar J. Wiley, Dean of Middlebury College, published his bulletin on *Organizing the Liberal Arts College for Vocational Guidance* and taught one of the earliest units on occupations as part of his course in Problems of Contemporary Civilization.

46 Courses Now Offered

This article is a report on 46 full-semester or quarter courses now offered by 40 colleges and universities in order "to inform students about occupational or employment opportunities open to them at graduation." Of these 40 institutions, 33 give full academic credit of one to three semester or quarter hours for these courses.

Another 44 courses, offered in 31 colleges and universities, include units on occupations. These courses bear such titles as Orientation, Planning for College and Life, Individual Development, Home Economics Seminar, Introduction to Agriculture, Introduction to Business, Introduction to Business Management, Introduction to Education, Introduction to Engineering, and The Profession of Nursing.

Who Teaches Them?

Director of Placement is the title which appears most frequently among the teachers of college courses in careers. Other titles range from Dean of the College through Department Chairman and all academic ranks to Instructor. Student personnel officers and counselors teach many of the courses.

In some cases the title of the teacher was not reported. In other cases, one person held two titles, *e.g.*, Director of Placement and Associate Professor. The tabulation below indicates the number of teachers who held each title reported.

7 Directors of Placement
1 Dean of the College
1 Head of the School
3 Deans of Men
2 Deans of Women
2 Deans of Students
1 Personnel Dean
1 Assistant to Dean
2 Directors of Student Personnel
1 Director of Students
3 Counselors
1 Employment Counselor
1 Department Chairman
1 Department Head
2 Professors
5 Associate Professors
1 Assistant Professor
4 Instructors

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Course Titles and Institutions

The 46 full-semester or quarter courses devoted primarily to occupational information and career choice carry the following 41 different titles. Some of these appear to have little relation to career planning, but the catalog descriptions clearly state that career planning is the major purpose of these courses. With the titles appear the names of the institutions in which these courses are offered.

Careers
  Stevens Institute of Technology
Careers in
  Business
    Cerritos College
  Health, Physical Education and Recreation
    Cerritos College
  Humanities
    Cerritos College
  Industry
    Cerritos College
  Science, English, Mathematics
    Cerritos College
  Social Science
    Cerritos College
Vocations in Religious Education
  Phillips University
Occupational Information
  Florida A & M University
Occupational Information and Introduction to Vocations
  Clark College
Orientation to Careers
  Marycrest College
Employment Orientation
  Nichols College of Business Administration
Job Orientation
  Southern Illinois University
Vocational Orientation
  Hampton Institute
Career Planning
  Everett Junior College
  Santa Rosa Junior College
Career Planning Seminar and Counseling
  Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn
Vocational Aims and Aids
  University of Detroit
Vocational Planning
  Orange Coast College
Vocational Counseling
  Ouachita Baptist College
Vocational Guidance
  Eastern Oklahoma A & M College
  Paine College
Vocational Psychology
  San Bernardino Valley College
Psychology of Adjustment
  Adams State College
Psychology of Vocations
  Yakima Valley Junior College
Educational and Vocational Guidance
  Del Mar College
Occupations and Vocational Guidance
  Ricks College
Occupational and Personal Orientation
  San Jose State College
Personal Orientation
  University of Minnesota
Personal and Vocational Orientation
  Savannah State College
Orientation
  Mississippi Valley College
Orientation in Agriculture
  University of Nevada
Engineering Orientation
  College of Marin
  Stockton College
Introduction to
  Agricultural Engineering
    California State Polytechnic College
  Business
    West Texas State College
Advanced Principles of Engineering
  Indiana Technical College
Civil Engineering Seminar
  Purdue University
Senior Seminar
  St. Bernadine of Siena College
Executive Leadership
  Long Island University
Preparation for Business Employment
  Stockton College
Personal Adjustment to Business
  Indiana University
  LaSalle College
  Ohio State University
Placement and Personal Adjustment to Business
  University of Arkansas

Catalog Descriptions

The content of some of these courses in careers is indicated by the following excerpts from catalog descriptions.

"Lectures and individual conferences covering the fields of vocational opportunity open to graduates. Methods of discovering the field in which an individual should find his greatest rewards in personal satisfaction and material gain, making of contacts with prospective employers, conducting himself in an interview, adjusting his attitude to industrial

conditions, planning for advancement, and other problems of bridging the gap between education and industry."

"Each student will prepare a portfolio consisting of a personal data sheet, an analysis of prospective employing firms, sample letters of application, and an acceptance or refusal, in the development of his projected plans for professional growth, advancement and service. Practice is given in being interviewed by representatives of business and industry."

"To acquaint the student with the general and specific requirements of a broad range of occupations. To aid the student toward an evaluation of his interests and aptitudes."

"Demands, skills and rewards of occupational areas in agriculture."

"Obtaining a job in business and industry. Applications, interviews, jobs available, what business expects, qualities that make for satisfactory employment."

"Lectures by representatives of industries which employ engineers and scientists. Types of work in research, development, design, production, sales and other departments. Advantages of small and large companies."

"To help students develop a sound philosophy of vocation, understand the basic principles underlying vocational choices, acquire necessary information on the vocations which they are interested in, and make tentative plans for their chosen vocations."

"Self-appraisal, career selection, and educational planning, including the study of vocational opportunities and job entry. It is recommended for all students who are undecided as to future vocation."

Offered to Whom?

Many of the reports did not indicate whether the course was required or elective, nor the class level at which it was offered. Among the institutions which did report these facts, more courses were required than were elective. The courses were offered to all four classes, but appeared most frequently in the senior and freshman years.

Source of Information

To obtain the information here reported, personal letters and questionnaires were sent to the presidents of 1,800 colleges and universities listed in the 1959 directory of the U. S. Office of Education. Replies came from 401 institutions, some of which expressed interest in starting a course in careers and requested a copy of this report.

Previous Reports

Earlier reports on college courses in careers have appeared in the following journals:

Journal of Higher Education—October 1932, October 1938, March 1944.

Personnel and Guidance Journal—February 1953, April 1956.

Vocational Guidance Quarterly—Autumn 1954.

Other Notes

Harold Fee, Director of Placement at Stevens Institute of Technology, uses many Stevens alumni as lecturers in his course on Careers, which is required of all juniors.

At Fresno City College, each full-time counselor has two classes of his own counselees in a required course called Orientation and Group Guidance, which includes the Study of Occupations as one of four major units.

L. Thomas Reifsteck, Director of Placement at LaSalle College, who teaches Personal Adjustment to Business, says "It is a most helpful and interesting course. Something new and different every session."

The Department of Engineering at Indiana Technical College uses the College Placement Annual as one of the instructional materials in its course on Advanced Principles of Engineering.

John W. Andrews, Director, Placement Services, who teaches Career Planning at the Polytechnic Institute of Brookyln, advises other placement officers to *"Do it! It's a 'must.'"*

Working in Private Homes for Room and Board

STANLEY J. GROSS

THE EMERGENCE of several large-scale loan opportunities[1] within the last several years would seem, to the casual observer, to solve the problem of inequality of higher educational opportunity due to economic disability. Many students, however, who are seen by financial aid counselors, are unable or unwilling to take advantage of these opportunities. Some are frankly fearful of the responsibility and obligation attached to borrowing money. Some are required to contribute to the family income. Others, because of motivational factors, poor high school achievement, and personal values are not considered by colleges to be good risks for loans. Where a student's high school academic achievement is not outstanding, and where his parents are unwilling or unable to assume responsibility for a substantial portion of his expenses, some form of part-time work is often the remaining solution.[2]

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[1] Reference is made to the National Defense Student Loan and state-wide guaranteed bank loan opportunities such as those provided by the New York Higher Education Assistance Corporation.

This article is based upon the author's Doctor of Education project, "Working in Private Homes for Room and Board—an Exploration at Selected Public Teachers Colleges," Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. The author wishes to acknowledge the considerable assistance of his major advisor, Professor Esther Lloyd-Jones.

[2] The possibility of scholarship is not considered here because of the prevailing practice of awarding scholarships on the basis of intellectual ability and performance. Wrenn (*Student Personnel Work in College*, p. 363) questions this practice and suggests that financial aid be awarded on the basis of what will contribute most to the applicant's development.

Women students without commercially employable skills appear to have greater difficulty than men in financing their college expenses from part-time and summer employment. Employment for women is usually not as remunerative, and income from such employment may not be sufficient to cover expenses at a college away from home. If women cannot call upon parental, loan, or scholarship resources, higher education away from home may indeed be a luxury item.

To meet this need, some colleges sanction an arrangement whereby students work in private homes for their room and board. This "maintenance arrangement" may account for almost two-thirds of the expenses of attending a public college away from home. Reported in the literature since 1926 [*1*], this arrangement had not been studied in any organized manner until the present study was accomplished. The arrangement poses both problems and opportunities for the students and householders engaged in it, the colleges which sanction it, and the student personnel workers charged with its administration. It is complicated by the housing, working, and living considerations involved in meeting the student's financial need.

The study was developed to secure information about how the arrangement operated and how students and householders viewed the arrangement. Forty-three public, coeducational teachers colleges in five northeastern states (Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania) were surveyed. Five colleges were selected for intensive study. Using a focused interview technique with student personnel workers and a questionnaire with

students and householders, special reference was given to the characteristics and needs of students and householders, the relationship between students and householders, and their relationship, in turn, to the college.

Findings

Participation. Only 273 students were found to be participating in a maintenance arrangement at the 43 colleges surveyed. These students constituted less than one per cent of the total enrollment at these colleges. Only among the 11 New York State Teachers Colleges was the number of students participating more than one per cent of total enrollment (1.3 per cent).

Participation in the arrangement responds to general and local economic conditions. During a period of prosperity, more householders wish to employ students than there are students who desire this opportunity. The student personnel workers suggested that the reverse would be true during an extended recession.

Students. Women students predominated as participants in both the 43 college survey and in the five college study, (survey 92 per cent, study 97 per cent). The majority of students were either 18 or 19 years of age and were in freshman status at the college. The reasons for participation were, in the main, financial. They saw the arrangement as the only way they could finance their college education. Some also participated in order to maintain their independence from their family. In other cases there was family concern for the student's welfare when the family could not afford to have the student live in college residence halls. The students were found to be superficially satisfied with the arrangement because it met their financial need. They were, however, very much concerned about the many restrictions of opportunity in the collegiate experience. The study indicated that the student was somewhat dissatisfied with her participation no matter how benign her relationship with the householder. Commenting positively upon the arrangement, many cited the experience with children and in homemaking, and a superior study environment. These, however, were seen as mostly incidental.

Basic to student dissatisfaction was the kind of adjustment necessary. The student had to adjust to a new living situation and often to being away from home for the first time. The student's adjustment was often complicated by an unrealistic and unclarified concept of work and the working out of this concept within the demands of a specific work situation. Finally, it was necessary for the student to adjust to the limitations on her life as a student and to the sense of isolation which the arrangement created. Despite a great deal of dissatisfaction expressed because of restriction from college activity, the data revealed that the arrangement, *per se*, did not reduce participation in student activities.

Householders. The householders were predominately married, well-educated (mean 15.2 years of schooling) housewives with minor children living in large (mean 9.6 rooms) one-family homes. A majority were in the 26–40 age group with two or more pre-school or early primary age school children. Most householders could afford other help for cleaning. Householders participated because of their need for help at dinner time and for baby sitting. For the most part, the families were in more than adequate financial circumstances, and probably of upper-middle-class social standing. These families saw this kind of help as most appropriate to their needs rather than other paid help. With growing children, their need was usually long-range, covering a five to seven year period.

The householder, as a result of the arrangement, gained freedom from household and child care tasks and was only dissatisfied when the arrangement did not work well. Her adjustment was to a new person in the home, resulting in some loss of privacy. The householder, too, often had unclarified and unrealistic expectations of the student and these had to be adjusted to specific student she had employed.

Turnover. The differences in expectation and unwillingness or inability to adjust to the arrangement resulted in 50 per cent of the students leaving the arrange-

ment after one year, and 20 per cent changing from one home to another. Few of the students leaving the arrangement withdrew from the college.

Success of Relationship. The factor of communication between the householder and the student was seen by student personnel workers as the one most important factor determining the success of the relationship. Related to this was the problem of the student's role in the home. In successful relationships, the student's role was seen by the student personnel workers as being closer to the kind of relationship the householder might have with a younger sister of whom she was fond. Where the relationship was not working out successfully, complaints in the work area predominated. Four reasons were cited explaining this: (1) Work expectations on the part of both student and householder are not clearly defined; (2) The householder fails to organize the routine work needed in her home; (3) The work that the student does for the householder is probably their point of closest contact; (4) The work area is the "safest" area for the expression of general dissatisfaction.

Working Conditions. Students worked generally from 17 to 23 hours weekly. In about 12 per cent of the situations, there was some exploitation on either side and disregard of the college policy. Students worked at a wide variety of tasks in the home; however, help at dinner time and baby sitting predominated.

Advantages and Disadvantages. Student personnel workers in commenting upon the arrangement suggested advantages and disadvantages in addition to those already mentioned. (1) They were able to detect students with adjustment problems at an earlier date than is true for other housing arrangements. (2) Housing conditions were much superior to those available to students living in rooming houses and apartments. (3) The student's social development with her peer group was hindered. (4) Because of the student's time commitment, there was a limitation of her study efficiency and educational development. (5) Student adjustment to college was generally hindered.

Implications

Havighurst has indicated that an extension of higher educational opportunity will mean greater numbers of "working class" children attending college [2]. At the present time

> ". . . practically all of the superior youth who do not continue their education beyond high school are children of people who have had less than a high school education. They value a job and an earning career highly for their young people. They are not accustomed to postponing the earning of money in favor of a long and costly period of vocational preparation. They favor early marriage, especially for their daughters.
>
> While these people have come to look favorably on high school education for their children, they do not regard college as really within the reach of their aspirations or their financial means. The majority of children growing up in these families will have little desire for higher education. Only a minority of the children of these families will have sufficient motivation to make the sacrifices necessary to get to college." [*2, p. 21–22*].

The values associated with the working class population cause significant financial problems for working class students. Many of the reasons for the inability or unwillingness of a student to use loan opportunities may also be associated with these values and the student's consequent motivation for education. An extension of higher educational opportunity to include more of this portion of the population poses significant problems for the financial aid counselor in providing student aid opportunities and the counseling related to financial problems. To what extent is the maintenance arrangement an effective answer to this problem? In general, it is a poor solution but it has certain practical advantages.

The arrangement only provides for those who are already highly motivated in the direction of higher education, a motivation not characteristic of the working class population. Indeed, it appears to be true that if these students are not highly motivated, they are unable to withstand the limits which the arrangement imposes.

Since a large percentage of these students discover and use other aid choices, it may

be suggested that participation in the arrangement serves to change attitudes of students in regard to their financial problems. At first these students see no alternative to meeting their financial problem. They enter into a relationship which requires little shift in the cultural expectations of their sex role; they become part-time mothers and housekeepers. In order for them to perform equally remunerative work elsewhere, they must shift their expectation of their sex role. Men do not seem to have this difficulty in "working their way through college." The expectation is that a man can and will do "anything" but the woman is limited, less so by propriety and strength than by her expectations of herself. Prior to college entrance, the prospective student without commercially employable skills who will not chance a loan may see as her only other choice working as a waitress in a local restaurant. This seems too bold, too uncertain, as she peers from the perspective of her hometown values. Once in college, however, the student observes from a secure setting other students doing this work and finds to her amazement that participation in such work is supported by the college culture. What is important in the college culture is that work, whatever the form, is incidental to the real goals of the college experience. In the college culture, another job is not too bold or too uncertain; in fact, it is seen as superior to the maintenance arrangement as it allows a student to participate more freely in the life of the college and still meet her financial needs. Even loans, which may make up the difference in her expenses are considered without trepidation. Other housing arrangements, less expensive than residence halls, provide for much needed companionship. As most of the student helpers leaving that arrangement change to part-time jobs and live in rooming houses or apartments by the end of the first year, these students' expectations of their sex role apparently have changed and they feel that they can accept certain working and living arrangements which they could not previously accept.

The complexity of the relationship between the householder and the student necessitates a concern by the college disproportionate to the number of students involved. With limited time and energy available, considering their total responsibilities, student personnel workers can do little more than provide for basic student welfare in their work with the arrangement. Any work for the personal development of students participating in this arrangement is accomplished at the cost of effort in other, more promising areas involving greater numbers of students. Consequently, colleges concerned with the total educational development of their students should seriously question the continuance of the maintenance arrangement.

The maintenance arrangement is a valuable addition to the college's student aid resources. At one college, students selecting participation in the arrangement can save as much as $800 a year as against living in the college residence hall.[8] If the college has 25 students participating, scholarship income of $20,000 would be necessary to meet the financial need of the students involved.

The preceeding paragraphs pose the question of whether monetary or educational values are to be supreme in judging the utility of an educational practice. If educational values are to be supreme and if the college is unable to give up the very practical advantage of the arrangement, does the college, in sanctioning the arrangement, not have the responsibility to make sure that the fullest educational potential is extracted for those students for whom it fails to make an adequate financial provision? The ideal of equality of educational opportunity would not be served otherwise. What may these colleges do to meet this responsibility?

Guidelines

The intimacy of the relationship between the student and the householder requires the college to pay some special attention

[8] Estimate for the 1959–1960 academic year at the State University College of Education, Buffalo, New York.

to the needs and problems of these students. Several guidelines are suggested for student personnel workers.

1. The college should supervise in the best sense—that is, develop to the fullest the educational potential of the college surrogate, the householder. If selection of householders has emphasized maturity, reasonableness, and understanding on the part of the householder, then the college may expect that the atmosphere in the home may be conducive to growth for the student. Once the householder's need for assistance is met by the student, she is willing to take responsibility for the student's welfare.

The use of the householder as an educational resource depends upon the development of an effective relationship between the college and the householder. An interview in the home may not only be effective in assessing householder characteristics, but also in indicating the interest of the college in the arrangement. When followed by group meetings where old and new householders can learn from each other and/or formal training programs for new householders, householders gain a greater understanding of the needs of students and the ways to assist them in their development. Explicit rules and policies of the college usually indicate the concern of the college for student health and welfare, but may also form the bedrock on which the relationship is based. These sheets of rules and regulations may offer, also, an introductory orientation to the problems of the relationship but can never substitute for the personal touch of the student personnel worker.

2. The student personnel worker must have a clear selection policy. It is vital to understand the characteristics of successful participants and be ready to refuse participation to those not likely to be successful. Refusing, however, to allow a student to participate may mean barring the student from college, while refusing a householder may mean a very difficult public relations situation for the college.

It is of vital importance that students possess a strong and clear motivation for participation. Usually this motivation will be economic, but not always so. Motivation other than economic should be given particularly careful scrutiny. Experience with children and housework, some measure of satisfaction relating to these activities and personal maturity are important factors in student selection.

Work with the student begins, necessarily, with a counseling interview. She has a decision to make—a decision which may drastically affect her life at the college. At this time she needs understanding and effective orientation information from the student personnel worker to make the best decision in light of her needs as she sees them.

Experience with the maintenance arrangement indicates that where the student has an alternative means of financing her education and makes the decision to participate without regard to the consequences, the student may be expected to find the necessary adjustments to the arrangement difficult to make. She may not make the adjustments because she does not *have to* make them.

Insight into the personality characteristics of the householder is vital for householder selection. Sensitivity to the needs of students and warmth and openness in relationships is often expressed in the householder's relationship with her children. This is why it is particularly desirable to interview the householder in her home.

The placement of students in the homes is a decision best left to the participants since many intangible personal characteristics important in the development of the relationship are best assessed by those actively involved. Discussion of interviewing technique, information about the other participant prior to the student-householder interview, and discussion of impressions resulting from this interview assists participants in establishing a constructive relationship.

3. Both participants, but particularly the student, need to feel that the student personnel worker is a helpful, interested, and concerned person. The student's sense of isolation from the college is inevitable and she needs to feel that there is someone

at the college to whom she can bring her problems and concerns; otherwise her isolation is more than physical.

The student personnel worker's help may be mainly in terms of building, between the participants, an effective relationship based upon mutual respect. Problems are not so intense when the participants feel they can work them out together. Complaints will arise, however, and even when minor they are symptomatic of either the adjustment difficulties of the participants or communication blocks between them. In reporting a complaint, the participant is asking for help.

4. Assisting the student to establish a feeling of belonging to the college community is a complex and difficult problem. The need for such belonging is great. The conditions of the working and living situation conflict with the normal pattern of student contact. Students who live in college residence facilities or in nearby rooming houses or apartments feel "at home" at the college; those who live at home are "at home"; the student participating in this arrangement, however, is "at home" neither at the college nor in the community.

These students enjoy getting together to exchange experiences and problems. An organization devoted to helping them solve their problems, to meeting social needs, and to giving them a voice in the affairs of the college might be one way of developing such a feeling of belonging. Special lounge, dressing, and locker facilities for all commuting students, inclusion in a luncheon meal served in a dormitory residence are some practical ways that colleges may demonstrate that the student has a place on the college campus.

The development by these students of effective relationships in the college community and with their householders is paramount. It determines the degree to which they may realize the promise of opportunity conferred by their admission to college in the first place.

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NEW FILM STRESSES CAREER INCENTIVES FOR NEGRO YOUTH

"A Morning for Jimmy," a new film prepared by the National Urban League, tells the story of a teen-age Negro youth who gives up hope of becoming an architect when he encounters racial discrimination seeking a part-time job. Jimmy is aided by his school teacher who explains that there are places for Negroes with proper training, but that they must be worked for. Available both in 16 and 35 mm, the black and white sound film was produced for the League's youth incentives and vocational guidance program. "A Morning for Jimmy" is available for free loan or purchase from the offices of Association Films, Inc. Further information on the film and its availability may be obtained from the National Urban League, 14 East 48th Street, New York 17, New York.

The San Diego State College

COUNSELING INTERNSHIP: A "TEAM" APPROACH

DAVID D. MALCOLM

FOR SEVERAL YEARS, San Diego State College has been developing a guidance internship program in which a team of approximately 10 intern counselors together with their college instructor move onto the campus of the cooperating secondary school.[1] This article is an abridgement of a more detailed description of the program, copies of which are available on request.[2]

Background

The desirability of supplementing regular college guidance course offerings with opportunities for practical field experience has long been apparent. As early as 1948, San Diego State College assigned qualified graduate students to work for college credit under the supervision of school guidance personnel in actual on-going guidance programs, although the plan was designated as "field work in school guidance" rather than as "internship." Often the student was placed in the school in which he was employed; usually he engaged in guidance activities for an average of about one period a day for a semester. Prior to assignment, a college faculty representative and school personnel cooperatively worked out a systematic program to assure as representative a variety of experiences as possible. In addition, the college faculty member made periodic supervisory visits, held individual conferences at the school, and conducted weekly seminar sessions on the college campus as well.

This plan was meeting a legitimate need and appeared to be working fairly well. Not until the summer of 1954 was any major change made in this approach. In retrospect, it appears that there were three main factors which gave impetus to the idea of innovating a rather drastic change at this time. First, there was the need to provide supervised practical experiences for summer session students at a time of year when most school guidance programs are inoperative. Second, there was a concern about the adequacy of the supervision under the old program—both because the college instructor simply lacked sufficient time and because the competence of the school personnel involved tended to vary greatly. Finally, there was some dissatisfaction with the scope of the experiences provided, limited as it was by each individual school's existing guidance offerings—especially since most teachers, simply working in their own schools, were getting little exposure to new procedures except as they could be presented in campus seminar sessions. At any rate, in the summer session of 1954, a new approach went into operation and at the same time the term "internship program" replaced the former term "field work."

The Summer Internship

During the 1954 summer session, arrangements were made to bring to the college campus each day during the six-week term a high school teacher and her class of 21 high school pupils who were registered for summer school at their school. Eleven carefully screened counselor-interns were assigned to work with this group. The fol-

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[1] San Diego State College is also experimenting with a similar approach to a guidance internship on the elementary school level.

[2] Interested persons may write to: Coordinator of Guidance Studies, San Diego State College, San Diego 15, California.

lowing summer, however, the program moved from the college campus to the campus of the cooperating high school where the interns could work with the entire summer session student body instead of being restricted to pupils in a single class. Interns registered for six units of credit and were on the high school campus for approximately five hours daily throughout the six-week summer session. Enrollment was strictly limited to 10 interns. This pattern has continued to this date.

The Saturday Morning Internship

The fall of 1957 brought expansion in response to increased demand with the offering of a similar program Saturday mornings during the regular academic year. Like the summer program, the Saturday internship is conducted entirely on the campus of the cooperating high school. Interns enroll for two consecutive semesters for three units each semester. Since the experiences provided by the two programs are virtually identical, no attempt will be made to describe them separately. It is true that the Saturday interns do have the advantage of working with pupils over a longer period of time. On the other hand, they lack opportunity for the continuity that comes from daily or almost daily contact.

Arrangements with the Cooperating Schools

Since working directly with pupils and parents can be extremely sensitive, close working relationships with administrators and teachers of cooperating schools are established in advance. The college instructor is always present when interns are at work in the school. The college staff member assigned is always a person already well known to the school and one who has himself had extensive public school experience. The school administration is kept continuously informed about the program and all plans are cleared in advance.

Finding a school to house the program has been no problem after the first year or two; the problem has been to select from among those available. School administrators have welcomed the opportunity to provide increased guidance services, even on such a temporary basis. The school guidance and administrative staffs report that reactions from pupils counseled, their parents, and their teachers have been uniformly favorable. In some cases, parents have sent youngsters to summer school solely in order to obtain these services.

Facilities Provided by the School

The intern group has required full-time occupancy of a large room equipped with movable tables to serve both for a workshop or laboratory and for general sessions and case conferences. In addition, some 8–10 private offices or other rooms have been made available for interviewing rooms. Ideally, there should be one such office for each intern but when this amount of space has not been available, a staggered schedule has been worked out. It is difficult to conduct the program, however, unless private interviewing space is available for at least two-thirds of the interns at all times.

Schools have also made available the use of school telephones, school typewriters, and school duplicating facilities. Interns have been given full access to pupil records. The school administration has assigned some specific person to orient the interns both to the physical facilities and to the instructional and guidance programs, and has provided opportunities for the college to orient the teaching staff concerning the intern program.

Materials Provided by College

Extensive files of test materials are provided by the College and kept in the work room. Interns have ready access to these materials which are considered expendable. The College supplies manuals, scoring keys, etc., for all commonly used tests in sufficient quantity so that no control system is necessary; interns take and replace these items at will. Interns are encouraged to use extra copies of tests they do not feel familiar with by administering them to each other. The basic philosophy is that these materials are there to be used.

Plans for the future include providing abundant vocational information materials in the work room in the same manner that test materials are now supplied. In follow-up surveys, pupils have indicated that use of tests has been one of the strongest points, use of vocational information materials one of the weakest. This suggests that materials which have to be checked in and out systematically, no matter how cooperative the librarian, simply do not get the same extensive use.

In addition, professional reference materials—general books on guidance and counseling, various listings of data about American colleges and universities, the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, the latest *Mental Measurements Yearbook*, and others—are kept available for browsing or borrowing in the work room. For more intensive study, of course, the entire resources of the College library, the curriculum library, and the College test office are available. In general, the plan is to make the intern work room as nearly a self-sufficient unit as possible.

Obtaining Subjects

Only students who volunteer for counseling are accepted as subjects. An announcement is made that a limited number of students will have an opportunity for special "educational and vocational testing and counseling," thanks to a cooperative arrangement between the high school and the College. Request blanks are made available at the principal's office.

In one typical instance, this brief announcement made in six of the 55 sections of English classes in the cooperating high school produced 59 volunteers immediately and approximately 30 additional inquiries after the lists had been closed. This response is noteworthy since these students were volunteering to give up their Saturday mornings for a full semester or more to participate in the program.[8] Furthermore, they were obliged to provide their own transportation and were asked to procure their parent's signature approving their participation.

Initially, the college urged school counselors to identify youngsters in advance to insure at least a sprinkling of the more difficult or uncooperative students among the subjects. However, analysis of volunteers has shown that it is not necessary to have any such hand-picked nucleus to guarantee the desired variety of problems. Volunteers include students rated by their counselors from one end of the continuum to the other. Counselors have several times noted that a large proportion of the volunteers come from that middle group who have never stood out one way or the other. There appears to be a special need for this counseling service among those who have somehow seemed to escape requiring special attention.

The Intern's Schedule

Each counselor-intern is assigned a case load of five pupils. He may subsequently add additional pupils if he wishes, depending upon the nature and seriousness of the problems encountered. Ordinarily, the intern will find his time divided approximately equally among the following three types of activities:

1. *Viz-a-viz* sessions with his counselees (counseling interviews, informal chats, administering group or individual tests, field trips, observation of playground or classroom behavior, etc.)
2. "Working up" his cases (studying cumulative records, selecting and scoring tests and analyzing test data, gathering information about occupational or educational opportunities, arranging for interviews with teachers, parent conferences, etc.)
3. Group sessions with his fellow interns (especially "staffing" his own and other interns' cases at case conferences; also occasional informal lectures, demonstrations, films, tape recordings—including tapes of his own interviewing whenever practicable, planning sessions, etc.)

The tentative master schedule of activities for a six-week summer program described below, while subject to much modification in actual practice, still indicates rather accurately the proportionate time allotments.

Purposes and Goals

Specifically, the purposes of the intern

[8] Number of contacts in typical cases range from 15 to 20.

PLAN A TOUR OF YOUR CONVENTION CITY

This friendly western city with its wonderful climate and generous opportunities for recreation and relaxation is the center of all that will make your Colorado visit unforgettable.

Denver is a city of fine residential areas, outstanding museums, and beautiful parks. Golf courses and tennis courts are open year 'round. Denver's unique mountain parks, embracing 20,000 acres just outside the city, offer an unexcelled variety of scenic and recreational attractions.

The Mile High City's sightseeing opportunities are practically endless. Drives of a few hours' duration or a pleasant day's trip out of Denver take you through the magnificent beauty of the Rocky Mountains. Winter and summer, spring and fall, the unsurpassed grandeur of this mountain scenery is yours to enjoy when you visit Colorado's Capital City.

EDUCATIONAL TOURS

U. S. Mint—see money coined
Bureau of Standards, Boulder
University of Colorado Medical Center
Fitzsimons Army Hospital
Denver Museum of Natural History
Colorado Historical Museum
Bureau of Reclamation (Denver Federal Center)
Air Force Finance Center
The Martin Company (restricted)
Atomic Energy Commission, Rocky Flats Plant (restricted)
Denver Research Institute at University of Denver

Officers and Committee Chairmen of the
AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION

(Consisting of the following divisions: American College Personnel Association, National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers, National Vocational Guidance Association, Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education, American School Counselor Association, and Division of Rehabilitation Counseling)

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Placement: Dorothy L. Arnold, Director of Vocational Guidance, Goucher College, Towson 4, Maryland
Publications: Walter F. Johnson, Jr., Professor of Education, Department of Administrative and Educational Services, College of Education, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan

APGA Convention March 27–30, 1961—Denver, Colorado

DENVER—

Dynamic Metropolis of the Rocky Mountain Empire

a mile high city...rapidly growing, forward-looking yet proud of its colorful pioneering history...its fast-changing skyline silhouetted against the backdrop of the magnificent Rockies.

focal point of the entire region's livestock, mining, petroleum, manufacturing and agricultural activities...transportation and distribution center...carnation capital of the world...a young city taking advantage of the enormous potential for industrial expansion provided by its natural resources. One of the nation's leading convention cities, offering the finest in accommodations and facilities.

a federal center...site of the United States Mint, Lowry Air Force Base, Fitzsimons Army Hospital, hundreds of federal offices...next door to the new United States Air Force Academy.

Colorado's Capital City of a million residents...served by major air, rail and bus lines...easily reached by transcontinental highways from any direction...host to thousands of visitors annually, who enjoy here a unique variety of year 'round pleasures and activities.

CONVENTION PLACEMENT CENTER

DENVER HILTON HOTEL

DENVER, COLORADO

MARCH 27–30, 1961

APGA MEMBERS: Interested in a new position?

EMPLOYERS: Seeking candidates for openings?

The APGA Placement Service will again operate at the Convention, providing a center for employers seeking candidates and for members interested in new positions in the field of guidance and student personnel work.

To take full advantage of these facilities you should request placement forms and register in advance of the Convention. Please use the request blank at the bottom of the page; forms will be sent to you immediately.

Employers who do not expect to attend the Convention may list positions and indicate to whom a candidate may apply. Candidates *must be present* at the Convention in order to take advantage of the Convention Placement Center facilities.

Completed forms must be returned to the Placement Service Office before March 1, 1961; otherwise register at the Convention Placement Center.

THERE IS NO CHARGE TO APGA MEMBERS OR EMPLOYERS FOR USING THE PLACEMENT FACILITIES

Please send requests to: Carl McDaniels
Placement Service Office
American Personnel and Guidance Association
1605 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W.
Washington 9, D. C.

Request for Convention Placement Service Forms

(Please Print or Type)

Please check forms desired.

______Send employer forms ______Send candidate forms

____
(Name and Title)

____
(Address)

____

______________ (Present Position) ______________ (Organization)

For Your Convenience

REGISTER IN ADVANCE

Every year more and more people are attending the national Convention. With the expected attendance in Denver this March at an all time high you will be saving yourself time at the Convention and be assured of having the reservations you wish at the special luncheons and dinners if you send in your reservation forms in advance.

Fill out all the registration forms on the opposite page, make out a check for the total amount of the fees (registration and meals) to "APGA 1961 Convention," and then mail the check and all three registration forms to the Convention Treasurer:

Dr. H. T. Martin
Counseling Service
University of Denver
Denver 10, Colorado

If you need a hotel reservation you are urged to mail the hotel reservation form at the same time as the pre-registration form.

The Headquarters Hotel of the Convention of the American Personnel and Guidance Association is the Denver Hilton. The Convention Placement Center will be located in the Hilton. The American Personnel and Guidance Association and the National Association for Women Deans and Counselors have arranged their time and place of convention for 1961 to facilitate attendance at both conventions. If you are planning to attend both the APGA and NAWDC Conventions, send in only one hotel reservation form.

ADVANCE REGISTRATION

1961 NATIONAL CONVENTION
AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION
Denver, Colorado, March 27–30

BE SURE TO RETURN ALL FORMS

Miss
Mrs.____
Mr. Last Name (please print clearly) First Middle

____
School or Firm Title

____
City Zone State

Please indicate your membership:

☐ ACPA ☐ NVGA ☐ ASCA ☐ NAWDC
☐ NAGSCT ☐ SPATE ☐ DRC ☐ WPI

Your first Convention?
☐ Yes
☐ No

APGA Affiliation:
☐ Member
☐ Student
☐ Guest

Date of: Arrival____________________A.M./P.M.
Departure____________________A.M./P.M.

Will you attend the NAWDC Convention?
☐ Yes ☐ No

II

REGISTRATION AND MEALS

BE SURE TO RETURN ALL FORMS

Miss
Mrs.____
Mr. Last Name (please print clearly) First Middle

____
Address—street and number City Zone State

All registrations are for the entire convention. Members save $1.00 by advance registration. At the convention the member fee will be $6.00. Husbands or wives of registrants may register for a $1.00 fee, if registered together.

A. Check appropriate registration fee.
B. Check all meal reservations below.
C. Enter amount for each item and total.
D. Make check for total amount to "APGA 1961 Convention."
E. You are urged to mail advance registration materials with the hotel reservation form if housing is required.

	Check Here	Fee	Amount Enclosed
Member	☐	$5.00	$______
Non-Member	☐	7.00	______
Student	☐	3.00	______
Husband/Wife	☐	1.00	______
Registration total			$______

Meal No.		Price (tax & tip incl.)	No. of Tickets	Fee
1.	ASCA Luncheon—Monday	$2.50	______	$______
2.	ACPA Luncheon—Monday	2.50	______	______
3.	NAGSCT Luncheon—Tuesday	2.50	______	______
4.	DRC Luncheon—Tuesday	2.50	______	______
5.	APGA Banquet—Tuesday	4.50	______	______
6.	SPATE Breakfast—Wednesday	2.00	______	______
7.	NVGA Luncheon—Wednesday	2.50	______	______
			Meals total	$______
			Registration total	______
			TOTAL AMOUNT ENCLOSED	$______

Make check payable to "APGA 1961 Convention"

Send to: Dr. H. T. Martin, Counseling Service, Univ. of Denver, Denver 10, Colo.

(No cancellation refunds after March 20, 1961)

III

RETURN ALL FORMS

Miss
Mrs.____
Mr. Last Name (please print clearly) First Middle

Do not write in this space

(code)

______ Registration Fee $______
______ Meals Fee ______
TOTAL $______

Hotel Reservation ☐ Yes ☐ No

STUDENT'S CERTIFICATION

I certify that________________________
is a bona fide student in residence at

____

____
(Signature of Major Professor)

Map of Denver and Key to Hotels

1. Albany Hotel
2. Argonaut
3. Brown Palace
4. Cosmopolitan
5. Denver Hilton
6. Mayflower
7. Olin
8. Shirley Savoy
9. YMCA
10. YWCA
11. City Auditorium
12. University of Denver
13. Hospitality Center

RESERVATIONS FOR HOTEL ROOMS—(See Map)

Denver has a great abundance of all type rooms in hotels, motor hotels, and motels to fit everyone's desires and budget. Please notify the Housing Committee if you desire accommodations other than those listed on next page. All reservations will be handled on first received basis. The Housing Committee will endeavor to make all reservations as requested. . .however, a change of hotels will be made if unable to secure room at requested rate.

HOTEL RESERVATION FORM

1961 NATIONAL CONVENTION
AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION
Denver, Colorado, March 27–30

Date_______________1961

APGA Housing Committee
℅ H. T. Martin, Counseling Service
University of Denver
Denver 10, Colorado

Please return this form by March 1st

Please make the following room reservations at (list three hotels of your choice):

1.________________ 2.________________ 3.________________

Number of rooms: Desired Rate:

With single bed (1 person) ________ ________
With double bed (2 persons) ________ ________
With twin beds (2 persons) ________ ________
Suite (parlor, 1 twin bedroom) ________ ________
Dormitory ________ ________
Other ________ ________

IMPORTANT!
Do you plan to attend the NAWDC Convention?
☐ Yes ☐ No

List all people occupying room. The name of each hotel guest must be listed.

Name	City and State	Arrival Date*	Departure Date

* If possible, please indicate estimated time of arrival.

Mail confirmation to:
Miss
Mrs.________________________________
Mr.
Name

____
Address—Street and Number

____
City Zone State

Denver Hotels

	Single	Double	Twin Beds	Connecting 3 or 4 Persons	Suites 2 Persons
Albany	$6.50– 9.50	$10.00–12.00	$12.50–14.00		
Argonaut	6.50– 9.50	8.50–11.50	9.50–12.00	$15.50–17.50	
*Brown Palace	8.50–17.00	13.00–17.00	14.00–19.00	20.00–22.00	$25–70
*Cosmopolitan	8.50–11.00	12.00–18.00	14.00–20.00		22–60
* †Denver Hilton	8.50–13.00	14.00–19.50	14.50–19.50		26–75
Mayflower	7.50– 8.50	8.50–12.50	12.50–18.50		
Olin	5.00– 8.00	8.00–10.00	9.00–12.00		
*Shirley Savoy	7.00– 9.00	10.00–11.50	11.00–13.00	15.00–18.50	25.00

* Located within 2-block area. † Headquarters Hotel.

Dormitory Space for Graduate Students

Olin Hotel	Rooms accommodating 3 or 4 persons—$3.00 each per night
YMCA	Rooms accommodating 3 or 4 persons—$2.00 each per night
YWCA	Rooms accommodating 2 persons—$2.25 to $3.25 each per night

WHO'S WHO

—and Where

We are eager to reflect in this column news of the professional activities and job changes of our members. Please keep us informed. Notices should be sent to the attention of the Assistant Editor.—Ed.

William F. Shoemaker is Counselor at Lathrop High School, Fairbanks, Alaska. He was formerly a student at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Richard B. Bergmann has left Boston University Junior College to become Assistant Professor of Psychology and Coordinator, Loans Program, at San Francisco State College.

Lawrence P. Blum who was formerly Assistant Director of Student Counseling at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee has been named Associate Professor of Education at that institution.

Steven Saffian has joined the faculty of Long Island University as Coordinator of Student Activities. He was recently a student at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Paul L. Cambreleng has been promoted from Associate Professor to Professor in the Department of Professional Development and Industrial Relations at Newark College of Engineering.

George T. Mannen is on leave from Oakland City College to work on his doctoral degree at the University of Denver on a graduate fellowship.

Patricia Bennett, Dean of Girls, Del Mar High School, San Jose, California, was formerly Teacher and Department Chairman in Physical Education in the Campbell Union High School District.

Mary S. Zink is now serving as Director, University Testing Service, at the University of Maine.

Emily L. Leedy has been granted a two-year leave of absence from her position as Counselor at the Homewood-Flossmoor High School, Flossmoor, Illinois, to accept a teaching fellowship in guidance at Ohio University, Athens.

Juanita Clyse has assumed the duties of Guidance Director at the Rome-Canaan School, Stewart, Ohio.

Sherman H. Masten has been named Associate Dean of Students, Hofstra College, Hempstead, Long Island, coming to that position from having served as the College's Director of Testing.

Walter Schoen, Jr., formerly Assistant Dean of Men at Syracuse University, is now Assistant Dean in charge of financial counseling for students at Hofstra College, Hempstead, Long Island, New York.

Vera F. Minkin has been appointed Associate Professor in the Guidance Department of Bronx Community College, Bronx, New York.

Peter S. Mousolite, Regional Representative for Higher Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Chicago, was formerly Specialist for Language Institutes, U. S. Office of Education, Washington.

Clarence E. Deakins, former Regional Representative for Higher Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Chicago, is now Chief of Field Operations, Financial Aid Branch, Division of Higher Education, U. S. Office of Education, Washington.

Deceased:

Frank Daly, Director, Division of Pupil Personnel Services, The University of the State of New York, The State Education Department, Albany, on July 13.

Pre-Registration Materials

for the

1961 National Convention

AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION

Denver, March 27–30

For your convenience, the Convention Committee in cooperation with the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* presents your pre-registration materials for the 1961 APGA Convention in Denver, March 27–30.

This special section includes:

- Pre-registration and Meal Reservation Forms to be completed and returned.
- A Hotel Reservation Form giving information and rates on the accommodations available.
- A Placement Center Form for those wishing to make use of this service.
- Information and background on your Convention city.
- Some suggestions on places to see and things to do.

You will want to study these forms and take this opportunity to register in advance. Send them in early and be sure of being on hand when your Association meets to discuss . . .

"man, mountains and moons"

"Against the backdrop of life as stable as the mountains, the personnel and guidance worker strengthens man's outreach toward infinite challenges of space, time and thought."

slightly above 50 per cent, explained in part by the wide diversity in membership.

WPRPGA feels that adequate finances are essential if a branch is to thrive. Three years ago, when its dues were raised from \$1 to \$3, one immediate effect noted was that membership was increased by 25 per cent. This dues increase has made it possible for branch activities to be much more extensive. Over \$1,000 has been contributed by the Branch to the APGA Building Fund. The total current budget is in excess of \$1,260. Of incidental interest is the fact that 40 of the 600 APGA Life Subscribers are dues paying members of WPRPGA.

WPRPGA feels it is on the move. Not only is it building a strong local association, but feels that it is also doing its full share in helping to build a bigger and even better APGA.

A Series on Related Professional Groups

National Association of Women Deans and Counselors

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF WOMEN DEANS AND COUNSELORS was founded in 1916 and has been a department of the National Education Association since 1918. It works to improve the professional competence of its members and to advance personnel work as a profession. NAWDC is interested in education as a continuing process through all age levels and in the need for communication among counselors and teachers at all levels. In addition, NAWDC has a specific interest in education as it relates to women in their changing roles in society and in the implications of these changes for counseling.

Active membership in the Association is open to women working professionally in guidance-personnel and certain administrative positions in schools and colleges. Active members must have broad educational and cultural preparation, with at least a master's degree. Associate membership is open to women holding executive positions in non-academic organizations dealing with young women and to women personnel workers in schools and colleges who do not have a master's degree. Student membership is available to women graduate students in this field, and there is provision for life membership. The current membership numbers approximately 2,000.

The quarterly *Journal* of NAWDC carries articles on the theory and practice of guidance-personnel work and on other aspects of education pertinent to the members' work. Additional brochures and pamphlets are published from time to time.

The annual convention, held in the spring, provides general sessions devoted to common concerns and smaller meetings conducted by the five sections: junior high school, high school, junior college, college, and university. A placement bureau is operated during the convention for the benefit of members seeking new positions and for administrators looking for candidates. Summer workshops, sponsored by NAWDC, have been held on various university campuses and two are planned for the summer of 1961.

In addition to its status as a department of the NEA, NAWDC holds membership on the College Entrance Examination Board and in the American Council on Education. Currently it is working on interorganizational projects with ACPA, NASPA, and AACRAO.

Because of the great community of interest with APGA, the annual conventions of NAWDC are customarily held just before those of APGA, in the same city. Many members of NAWDC are active in some of the divisions of APGA.

Current officers are: President—Margaret Habein, Dean, College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, University of Wichita, Wichita, Kansas; President Elect—Lillian M. Johnson, Dean of Women, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio; Vice President—Bessie B. Collins, Dean of Women, University of Delaware, Newark; Recording Secretary—Katherine Warren, Dean of Women, Florida State University, Tallahassee; Treasurer—Miriam A. Shelden, Dean of Women, University of Illinois; Urbana; Editor, Journal of NAWDC—Kate Hevner Mueller, Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington. The Executive Secretary is Barbara Catton, 1201 16th Street N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

The headquarters office of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors is located in the NEA Educational Center, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

mendation is followed by reference to the group (s) from which it came, and in the event of 15 per cent or more opposition, the vote on the recommendation is recorded and often a minority view stated as well.

The reader of the recommendations comes away feeling that there is little left in the universe of possibilities that has not been recommended. Another impression is that perhaps by necessity, the recommendations are stated in extremely general terms. The first two impressions lead to the third which is a prediction that the most critical set of recommendations are in the last section dealing with followup procedures. One would hope that much could be reported with specific reference to these recommendations at the 1970 Conference. Time will tell.

C.E.E.B. Orientation

The College Board Today, 1960. College Entrance Examination Board, 475 Riverside Drive, New York 27, N. Y. 40 pp.

For the *Journal* reader who may have little direct contact with the College Entrance Examination Board or its activities, this pocket-sized brochure provides a good orientation. The content includes a description of participating institutions, membership requirements, college admissions testing, guidance and placement testing, college scholarship service, research and study programs, and the like. Included is a list CEEB publications available upon request.

Guide to Taft-Hartley Act

The Taft-Hartley Act—A Management Guide, W. E. Fisher, Bulletin 31, 1960. Industrial Relations Section, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, Calif. 31 pp. $1.00 from Bookstore, California Institute of Technology.

The passage of the Landrum-Griffin Act of 1959 led to the revision of this guidebook—a guide to what the author describes as an intricate and often perplexing piece of legislation which has considerable potential effect upon management and supervisors. The Guide opens with a brief historical background from depression days to the present amended act. This is followed by definition of terms under the act; rights granted to employees, to unions, and to employers; duties and responsibilities of employers and of labor organizations; national emergency strikes; and grievances and enforcement procedures. The Guide closes with a short discussion of the status of supervisors under the amended act. Supervisors play a complex role in cases where, by terms of the act, they are viewed as representatives of management, not as employees, and yet may be holding union membership and dealing with employees who may or may not be union participants.

Association Activities

CARL McDANIELS, EDITOR

The Branches in Highlight

The Westchester-Putnam-Rockland Personnel and Guidance Association

THE WESTCHESTER-PUTNAM-ROCKLAND PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION, WPRPGA, a tri-county branch of APGA and NVGA in the New York City suburban area, claims to be one of APGA's most dynamic branches. Organized at New Rochelle in October, 1939, the Branch just a few months ago celebrated its 21st birthday with an appropriate "Old Timers' Night" Program at which the main speaker was NVGA Past-President Rex B. Cunliffe, who helped to establish the Branch.

Because of a wide diversity in membership, encouraged by the Branch, the main program theme for the past two years has centered on "How Can Business, Education, and Industry Work Together More Effectively in Solving Personnel Problems of Mutual Interest?" Approximately one-half of each year's 10 programs have been on this topic in one form or another. Of great significance in this connection, and one of the branch's outstanding activities, has been the holding of two Branch Workshops at Arden House (former home of Ex-Governor Averell Harriman at Harriman, N. Y.) with this theme—one in May and one in November. Both workshops were well attended with attendance about evenly divided among the three groups. Dr. Lewis A. Wilson, former Commissioner of Education in New York State, served as keynote speaker and consultant for both of the conferences and made major contributions to the objectives of bringing business, education, and industry closer together in the tri-county area through improved communication and cooperation on personnel matters.

Among other interesting programs of WPRPGA in the past two years have been those on such subjects as: (1) John and Mary Can Still Choose Their College: How? When? Where?; (2) Guidance in Foreign Countries and What It Can Mean to Us; (3) APGA Today and Tomorrow (a meeting held during the Philadelphia Convention of APGA, addressed by then President-Elect Dan Feder to an audience of 70 members); (4) How Can We Better Meet the Needs of Emotionally Disturbed Children in Our Schools?; (5) Where Are We Going in Testing and Why?

Ten meetings are held each year—usually one per month, September through June—with the last meeting of the year being of a social nature, a steak dinner picnic. No permanent meeting place has been selected but the majority of meetings are planned for a central location because of the relatively wide area served by the branch. Current officers of WPRPGA are: President—C. C. Dunsmoor, Director, BOCES in Northern Westchester; President-Elect—E. B. Hammerstedt, Personnel Director, Sonotone Corporation, Elmsford; Vice President—Joseph A. Ryan, Counselor, Port Chester Senior High School; Secretary—Elanor C. Dunham, Counselor-Coordinator, Spring Valley High School; Treasurer—Dale E. Remaly, Dean, Horace Greeley High School, Chappaqua.

The Branch membership is approximately 300 and will probably go well beyond this figure before the end of the current year, as Membership Chairman George A. Favareau has a strong campaign underway. An all-out effort is being conducted, too, to increase considerably the percentage of APGA members. At present this is only

ence for the reader. Irving Lukoff in "A Sociological Appraisal of Blindness," has written a succinct chapter describing the cultural response to, as well as "the kind of culture developed by blind persons." Blindness is reported to have an influence in defining a person's role and in making him subject to stereotypes. In turn, the attitudes directed toward him influence the blind person's self-concept and behavior. Lukoff discusses status categories, role adaptation, reference groups, and typology. Four types of blind persons are discussed: traditional, withdrawn, innovator, and rebel. After a review of the sociological structure of services to blind persons, Lukoff concludes that efforts should be made to alter the opportunity structure and the patterns of service and employment currently practiced in an effort to reduce the pressures on blind individuals toward conformity to current stereotypes of blindness.

In the chapter, "A Psychological Appraisal of Blindness," Martin Whiteman describes the role of vision as an efficient distance receptor in such activities as locomotion, manipulation, and speech. It is noted that blind persons differ in their ability to differentiate the sensory field and to integrate sensory experience with muscular activity. Similarly, Whiteman discusses the impact of blindness upon perception of and reaction to physical aspects of the self and the symbolic aspects of the environment. The author emerges with a formulation which relates the impact of visual loss to perceptual processes. The response of the blind individual to the changed sensory and attitudinal situation in which he finds himself is largely determined by the meaning of blindness to the self-concept.

Within the context of these two chapters, a number of valuable constructs are offered, differentiating blind clients from seeing ones, setting up a possible base for social casework practice with this group. In writing three chapters on "The Implications of Blindness for the Social Caseworker in Practice," Fern Lowry tends to ignore the Lukoff and Whiteman formulations. Casting her material in the traditional social casework mold, she spends much of her effort in laying down basic casework principles which apply to all persons. When she does make differentiations, they are of a mechanistic nature dealing with such problems as the influence on the social casework process of the degree of vision, medical diagnosis and prognosis, the onset of blindness, hearing, education, family structure, employment history, and community identification. The dynamic material presented in Lowry's chapter tends to focus on the sense of inadequacy, dependence, and adjustive mechanisms of blind persons. The materials on the treatment process are scanty. Fewer than two pages are devoted to interviewing. Virtually nothing is said about the special problems of counseling blind persons.

The volume is concluded by short chapters on "The Family in the Rehabilitation of Blind Persons" and "Caseworker and Community." There is also a bibliography and an appendix of facts and figures about blindness. The major value of this publication lies in the excellent chapters by Lukoff and Whiteman on sociological and psychological aspects of blindness. In both instances, the formulations are brief, pointed, and germane to counseling problems. On the other hand, the chapters on the casework process are tangential to the basic formulations made by Lukoff and Whiteman. In fact, it almost seems that the materials on casework practice were written with a minimum of attention to the contents of the chapters on theory. The volume would have been enriched by the development of a system of clinical practice growing out of and consistent with the sociological and psychological aspects of blindness enunciated by the other authors.

How has *Social Casework and Blindness* solved the dilemma of sameness and difference in a defined population? Lukoff and Whiteman in their chapters focus on differences. Lowry in her chapters, while recognizing differences, places greater emphasis on sameness. In part, this is probably due to the fact that theoreticians may isolate aspects of difference for study more readily than practitioners who tend to avoid the compartmentalization of the person in the diagnostic and treatment process. The general impression left by *Social Casework and Blindness* is that, in theory, differences may be delineated, but in practice the degree of difference and its patterning varies from one blind individual to the next.—HERBERT RUSALEM, *Hunter College, New York.*

Publications . . . in brief

THOMAS M. MAGOON

Report of Testing Conference

1959 Proceedings of the Invitational Conference on Testing Problems, 1960. Educational Testing Service, 20 Nassau Street, Princeton, N. J. 99 pp.

This report of the 1959 ETS annual conference is wide in its coverage and perhaps more stimulating than many of its predecessors. The first session includes three addresses. Dr. Ralph Tyler's topic concerns the impact, direct and indirect, of testing programs upon the behavior of teachers and students. Dr. Walter Michels describes the development of course content and teaching materials of the Physical Science Study Committee—a project geared to considerable revision of the physics curriculum in the secondary schools. Dr. Paul Woodring considers the impact of social change upon the educational process. He outlines the importance of establishing priorities among educational objectives and follows these with predictions of certain changes which would implement these objectives. These changes include class size variations, wider use of TV, more individualized progression through grades, and changes in the nature of instructional personnel through team instruction.

The second session of the conference was devoted to models and procedures in teaching devices such as teaching machines and self-tutoring devices. Dr. Norman Crowder describes intrinsically programmed teaching devices. Dr. James Holland presents teaching machines as an application of principles learned through laboratory investigation and stresses the importance of such principles as critical in behavior modification. Dr. Paul Diederich of ETS describes current cooperative work in the development of self-correcting exercises and tests in the field of English.

The Conference report is indeed a stimulating one. The reader should find much food for thought and those *Journal* readers affiliated with educational institutions will find much to consider in terms of application to their local problems and procedures.

Mathematics in Occupations

Mathematics and Your Career, Revised 1960. U. S. Departments of Labor and of Health, Education and Welfare. USGPO, Washington 25, D. C. 10 pp.

The material presented here grew out of the data gathered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the course of its occupational outlook research. The Office of Education's interest in the guidance value of some of this material led to collaboration in producing this pamphlet. The readership is expected to be among those school and college youth who could benefit from a concise and integrated summary of the relative importance of mathematics training in various occupations.

The pamphlet opens with general advice to seek multiple sources of information, get more detailed information, and the like. It then categorizes over 60 selected occupations according to the amount and type of mathematics training generally needed in both school and college coursework in order to be equipped to perform in the particular occupation. Beside each of these occupations is listed the 1959 *Occupational Outlook Handbook* page number and the reprint number for those desiring to order the brief itself.

White House Conference Recommendations

1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth, Recommendations—Composite Report of Forum Findings, 1960. Superintendent of Documents, USGPO, Washington 25, D. C. 85 pp. $.35.

Here is a compendium of recommendations representing the fruits of the White House Conference's theme assemblies, forums, and workgroups. The recommendations (670 to be exact) are grouped into the following sections: general, physical environment, social environment, personnel, religion, values and ideals, human rights, children and youth as individuals, world concerns, and followup with reference to subsequent action. Within each section there are many subdivisions as well. Each recom-

ing a current cross section view of each subject including a brief historical background. Emphasis has appropriately been placed on developments in various fields since the publication of the last Year Book in 1957.

Part III contains four directories of agencies whose programs are related to the subject matter of Parts I and II.

The *Social Work Year Book* will appeal to a wide audience. In addition to social workers and practitioners in related fields, it should prove to be a valuable reference for teachers, guidance personnel, legislators, board members and any one interested in public or voluntary welfare programs. It gives a broad basis for a sound understanding of social welfare problems and methods to deal with them.

Many of the topical articles deal with related fields such as health, education, religion, and law. Related activities and agencies are defined as those who share with social work some responsibility for providing service to a common group of clients or whose objectives are in the same general area as social work practice and interest. Articles are not designated as belonging to either social work or a related field. However, a classification of topical articles has been included which provides ready information as to the relatedness of subjects considered in Part II. Cross references are used throughout interrelated articles to assist the reader.

Like other editions of the *Social Work Year Book*, this one presents in general the objective treatment of subject matter sought by the editor. Many of the authors in addition to providing comprehensive and authentic information resulting from considerable research have also given a critical evaluation of the material presented. In general, the topical articles have been written by the better-known authorities in the field, thus lending a sense of authenticity to the material covered.

The 1960 *Social Work Year Book* is an indispensable addition to the library of any organization with programs in the broad field of social welfare. The articles are written in such a manner that they have value as a reference resource for both practitioners and administrators.

The up-to-date and extensive bibliographies appended to the articles enhance their value for those particularly interested in the subject.—ARCH K. GRIFFIN, *Chief, Social Work Service, Veterans Administration, Los Angeles.*

DISCUSSION, CONFERENCE, AND GROUP PROCESS, by Halbert E. Gulley. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1960. 388 pp. $4.50.

IN THE PAST few years, a number of books have been published on small-group behavior, small-group research, group discussion, tips for conference leaders, and similar topics. In general, they tend to be scientific treatises reporting research findings or oversimplified "how-to-do-it" easy readers. This book falls between these two extremes. It is an attempt, well achieved, to integrate practical help for the student-practitioner in the discussion and group process. In making the process of group action clear, the author has slighted neither basic theory nor research reports about group process. At the same time, he has avoided the trap of too many charts, research findings, and lengthy footnotes, often mistakenly calculated to impress the reader.

In his first chapter, the author puts the function of discussion in its large context relative to democracy. He then defines the different kinds of discussion groups, interaction patterns, processes of communication, leadership of discussion situations, and discussion in large groups. In two very helpful chapters, the author deals with the problems of ethics in the discussion process and the limitations of discussion.

This book should be particularly helpful to persons who want a basic grounding in the process of group action and discussion without taking a course in advanced social psychology, group dynamics, or a similar formal, academic learning experience. Also, it could be useful for selected courses in the field of adult education and in extension programs. This does not mean to imply that it would not be academically respectable for subsidiary college courses where knowledge about discussion processes is important.

This reviewer raises some question about chapter 3, which devotes itself to the formulation of discussion questions. The attention given the subject is out of proportion

to its importance in the general field—an opinion very possibly a reflection of this reviewer's bias. Also, there are places where the book suffers from too general application of the discussion process when the author deals with Communist tactics and negotiations, dealing with problems of power, and general public debate. While these areas are important, obviously the author had not sufficient space to give adequate treatment to them.

The book is clearly presented, well organized, and is a meaningful contribution to the increased understanding of the phenomena of groups in action in our society.—GORDON L. LIPPITT, *Director, Center for the Behavioral Sciences, George Washington University.*

SOCIAL CASEWORK AND BLINDNESS, edited by Samuel Finestone. New York: American Foundation for the Blind, 1960. 157 pp. $1.50.

ATTEMPTS are being constantly made to apply the practice of various disciplines to clients sharing one or more definable characteristics. The assumption that underlies these efforts is that members of the group being discussed have characteristics which differentiate them from "clients-in-general," and which necessitate departures in the general practice of the discipline when working with such individuals. Coincident with this process of differentiation is one of generalization. Thus, the similarity between the group under study and "clients-in-general" is stressed at the same time that differences are also being underlined. As Fern Lowry, one of the social work practitioners represented by several chapters in *Social Casework and Blindness,* puts it: "Persons who are blind are more similar to, than different from, those who are sighted despite popular misconceptions." It may be helpful to review the manner in which the authors attempt to establish a balance between the "sameness" and the "difference" to be found in a population of blind persons being served in a social casework process.

The basis for difference is laid down in two theoretical chapters which erect a sociological and psychological frame of refer-

people searching for answers to their personal problems may question advertising the book as "lending itself to individual use." Is it desirable to put such questions to young people without careful follow-up and wise discussion with a mature person who can help them evaluate their answers? Many young people are already self-conscious and confused by a great deal of introspective thinking and are apt to become more self-centered and confused by focusing on such questions as, "Do I have a nervous appetite?" and "Are you oversensitive or obsequious?" On the other hand, those who are finding life pretty satisfactory as it is, are not apt to be motivated to search out source materials and read references by themselves. However, such a workbook as Dr. Murray's might be used as a spring board for discussion in classes in self-improvement in the hands of a thoughtful teacher who could select from the myriad of subjects touched upon those that seemed to fill the needs of his particular class.

The workbook has the convenience of perforated pages so that any part of it can be easily detached. Dr. Murray has been selective in her choice of reference material and most of the books to which she refers are by recognized authorities, many written within the last 10 years.—MARION STEEL, *Supervisor of Psychological Services, Vocational Advisory Service, New York City.*

SOCIAL WORK YEAR BOOK 1960, edited by Russell H. Kurtz. New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1960. 767 pages. $8.50.

THIS FOURTEENTH EDITION of *The Social Work Year Book,* the second to be published by the National Association of Social Workers, follows the same general pattern of those published earlier, with several changes in presentation and the introduction of some new articles. It contains three main divisions.

Part I, History, Status, and Trends Articles, gives an interesting review of the development leading to the present status of social work, including a record of the first 25 years of Social Security.

Part II includes 68 Topical Articles giv-

in a book that is much shorter than others with similar titles. How well have they succeeded?

Generally very well is the judgment of this reviewer. But the authors have warned the readers that something must be lost when maximum brevity is sought. The loss in this book is in the later chapters where discussions of sociometry, rating scales, anecdotal records, inventories and projective techniques are presented. It is clear that the authors are much more concerned with statistics and methods of handling objectively-scored tests than with materials that cannot be scored with a key.

The authors' enthusiasm for tests has not apparently led them to detailed reading of test manuals. They recommend and use for illustration tests which violate the very principles presented throughout the book. The practical teacher is going to be in a dilemma when she, having learned what is desirable from this textbok, sets out to select a test and finds in the manuals that test authors and publishers seem not to have read the same book. The authors have not done the critical job that seems essential if the readers are to become intelligent consumers of tests. Is it really true that the best tests are developed commercially and that, other things being equal, the best tests are the cheapest tests?

The authors suggest that the book might be "focally relevant to the professional role of the counselor" but the term predictive validity appears only once in a short paragraph. Attempts are made to suggest implications for professional counselors but it seemed clear to this reviewer that the book was written for use in the pre-service and in-service education of classroom teachers.

If one has to give or take short courses on measurement and evaluation, and one is willing to sacrifice thorough and critical discussions for a concise rather traditional treatment of the field, this is as good a book as one can find. The counselor may wish, however, that his colleagues had read more deeply and critically in this important area. —John W. M. Rothney, *Professor of Education and Co-Director, Research and Guidance Laboratory, University of Wisconsin.*

Effective Living, by Lois Smith Murray. New York: Harper & Bros., 1960. xiv + 294 pp. $3.75.

"You should not expect your vocational counselor to do the whole job for you: he will merely open doors of information for you," says Dr. Murray in her discussion of "career analysis." She then proceeds to give some practical information in capsule form and tells the student where to find more.

The problem of vocational choice is treated by Dr. Murray in two short chapters called "Your Vocational Aptitudes" and "Survey of Vocational Information." In 17 pages, four are given to such questions as:

> Do I have a natural flair for organizing activities of others?
> When people bore me do I conceal it?
> Am I self-confident?
> Do I like to work in an atmosphere of change and variety?

Dr. Murray gives a paragraph to "Vocational Guidance." She bids the college freshman "Find Yourself" and, in a page and a half, she covers the various topics of tests frequently used for this purpose, the basic needs of an individual, personality, pretraining qualifications, academic efficiency, and self-discipline.

These chapters are a part of a workbook which is presented to the college freshman by the author who says, "The purpose of this book is to introduce the student to interdisciplinary approaches in personality development." Dr. Murray urges the student to "be ready to explore investigations, to coordinate scientific findings in the various disciplines, and to make use of them in your own long-range planning." The book is advertised as lending itself to class or individual use.

Dr. Murray has covered a wide range of topics and a span of living that begins before birth with heredity and extends through marriage to man's relation to the world itself. She has touched on such varied facets of living as, "Nature," "Nurture," "Society," "Mastery of Skills," "The Use of the Library," "Charm," "Tobacco, Barbituates, Narcotics," "Invitations," "Premarital Considerations," and "Your Philosophy of Life." Each topic is briefly introduced and "supplementary references" are given. If students followed through on Dr. Murray's suggestions in any but a superficial way the average student would have too little time left for his college work.

Counselors who work with troubled young

Books Reviewed

reviews of recent publications . . . by various contributors

HELPING YOUR GIFTED CHILD, by Ruth Strang. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1960. 270 pp. $4.50.

EVER SINCE "the gifted child" became a popular topic we have had a great outpouring of books and articles on identification, characteristics, curricula, special methods, special problems, research, and so on. We have had committees, conferences, workshops, courses, and study groups. There has been some wasted effort; there has been some duplication. On the whole, however, the effort has been worthwhile. There are few educators today unaware of the problems that attend the establishment of a program for gifted children.

The study of the gifted child has aroused great interest among teachers, school administrators, psychologists, and social workers. It has also provided some, if not all, of the answers that they sought in order to make their work effective. With the parents, however, the story is somewhat different. Their interest has been aroused but they have been given little real help in bearing their responsibilities. PTA meetings and study groups have looked at the problem; teachers and administrators have endeavoured to explain. But the real weakness, and a very serious one, has been the lack of authentic, authoritative, nontechnical literature intended for parents and not primarily for educators.

Dr. Ruth Strang has recognized this weakness. In her latest publication, *Helping Your Gifted Child,* she has produced an easy-to-read book of modest size, which is aimed specifically at parents. She shows the problems which are likely to arise; and suggests practical ways to approach and solve them. While making it quite clear that there is no magic formula which can be used for all gifted children in any situation, she outlines the basic principles which will help parents to identify, understand, and enjoy a gifted child and which will enable them to give the child adequate assistance in developing his potential. The language is simple, clear, and nontechnical. Even the busiest housewife or the most harried business man should find it easy to understand.

One interesting special feature is the "Question and Answer" section. Here Dr. Strang provides specific answers to particular questions which parents and teachers have asked her. Questions such as "Can a gifted child read too much?," "When is the best time for acceleration?," "Can popularity become a burden to the child?" can hardly fail to arouse interest.

Another special feature of value is the supplementary material contained in the Appendices. Here parents can find evidence of concern about the education of the gifted, a list of books and pamphlets selected because of their special interest to parents of gifted children, a list of children's book clubs, and a book list for gifted children.

If *Helping Your Gifted Child* were useful only to parents, the author would have done a useful task, but she has done more than this. She has produecd a volume which is of interest to anyone who is concerned with gifted children—guidance counselor, teacher, administrator, psychologist, pediatrician, or social worker. There is much new material, never published before in a nontechnical work; and the easy-to-read style and fund of anecdotes provide a welcome change from the more ponderous volumes that we usually have to read.—HARRY O. BARRETT, *Head, Guidance Department, North Toronto Collegiate Institute, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.*

TO SIR, WITH LOVE, by E. R. Braithwaite. Engelwood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. 216 pp. $3.50.

THIS BOOK presents the experiences of the author, a British Guiana Negro, as a beginning teacher in the London slums. During World War II he was accepted as one of Britain's RAF heroes, but he was rejected as a Negro when he sought civilian

employment as an engineer. Eventually his financial circumstances forced him to accept employment in a school in which even a Negro teacher looked good to the headmaster.

The book begins with an impressive analysis of the slums and the author's feelings toward its residents—especially the scrub women who rode the bus with him. The author's description of these women's seductive behavior reveals his real understanding of human behavior and his ability to cope with difficult problems in human relations.

When he met the headmaster and walked through the school with him, I felt as if I were surveying the situation and meeting the staff with the author. Most teachers and counselors who read this book will be impressed with what this school attempted to do for its pupils. Some will conclude that the headmaster's philosophy is unrealistic; however, even they will be impressed with what the author was able to accomplish when he did his best to help these foul-mouthed hostile youth. At one point he wrote, "They seem to have no sense of decency." His genuine respect for them as individuals, his broad background, and his desire to help them learn helped them to develop increasing respect for themselves and encouraged them to see their own potentialities. Certain chapters impressed me in particular.

In chapters 4 and 5 he re-examined how he felt when he was accepted as a war hero and how he tried to understand why he was rejected as a Negro when England needed competent engineers so desperately. During this discussion he made the point that Britain's stated policies on racial matters are commendable, but that Negroes are not really accepted and that Britains cannot seem to admit this even to themselves.

Most teachers will like chapters 6, 7 and 9 in which he reported his experiences in helping his students understand what they might expect from him and what he would expect from them.

Teachers also will enjoy chapter 8 in which he recounted how he was challenged by some of his students and how he evaluated his teaching methods, and chapter 11 in which he related his experiences in helping a colleague cope with a difficult problem.

There is one weakness of the book. Though the author conveyed that it was difficult at first, he did leave the impression that all of these students can be reached. To me this seems to be a little optimistic.

This is a great book. It will help teachers and counselors better to understand human nature in general, members of minority groups, and especially delinquent youth.—Merle M. Ohlsen, *Professor of Education, University of Illinois.*

A Practical Introduction to Measurement and Evaluation, by Hermann H. Remmers, Nathaniel L. Gage, & J. Francis Rummel. New York: Harper & Bros., 1960. 370 pp. $4.75.

Three chapters dealing with the purpose and organization of this book, a survey of evaluation in schools, and statistical concepts used in measurement are classified under Part I: Orientation. Part II titled The School Testing Program contains chapters on development and administration of evaluation programs, selection of measuring instruments, and the giving, scoring, and interpretation of tests. Evaluation of Classroom Instruction which is Part III of the book deals with identification of objectives, constructing teacher-made tests, the assignment of marks, and reporting pupil progress. The two chapters in Part IV entitled Appraisal of Personality Aspects deal with the determining of attitudes and interests and assessing emotional and social adjustment. One appendix contains a list of test publishers and another presents a glossary of common measurement terms.

The authors begin by asking a very pertinent question: "Why another textbook in educational measurement and evaluation?" In attempting to answer their own question they explain that they have tried to make the book more practical than others in terms of what busy teachers can use on the job and what students can learn from a textbook in a semester's course. But they also point out that there is nothing more practical than a good theory and this is their justification for discussion of what they call such powerful theoretical concepts as validity, reliability, and the gearing of tests to objectives. The authors have attempted to be both practical and theoretical

Prof. D. H. Marshall, Dept Educ, Mar 1. Master's: Guid & Couns.

Utah, University of, Salt Lake City. *Apply for Admis:* Robert M. W. Travers, Chmn, Dept Educ Psych; fall term, Aug 22; winter term, Dec 5; spring term, Feb 22. *Tuition:* res $255; nonres $435. *Fellows:* 20, $1,000–4,000, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 20 hrs (approx); apply Dr. Travers, Apr 1. *Scholars:* 6, $1,800–2,800, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Travers, Apr 1. *Assists:* 10, $500–1,100, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk varies; apply Dr. Travers, Apr 1. *Internships:* 2, $1,000–1,800, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 20 hrs; apply Willard W. Blaesser, Dean Stus, Apr 1. *Res Halls Assists:* 16, $500–1,200, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 20–30 hrs; apply Dean Blaesser, Apr 1. Master's: Voc Rehab, Educ Psych, Couns, Sch Psych; Doctorate: Couns Psych, Educ Psych.

Utah State University, Logan. *Apply for Admis:* Dept Psych. *Tuition:* res $195/yr; nonres $195/yr (for Assists). *Assists:* 4, $450, out-of-state tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 10 hrs/wk; apply Prof Arden Frandsen, Dept Psych, Jun 1. Masters: Psych, Couns; Doctorate: Couns, Sch Psych, Educ Psych.

Virginia, University of, School of Education, Charlottesville. *Apply for Admis:* Richard L. Beard, Couns-Trnr, Sch Educ; fall term, Apr 1; spring term, Sep 1. Tuition: res $344; nonres $614. *Fellows:* number varies, $300–900, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Ralph W. Cherry, Dean, Sch Educ; fall, Aug 1; spring, Jan 1. *Scholars:* number varies, $600–1,500, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Cherry, fall, Aug 1; spring, Jan 1. *Assists:* number varies, $600–1,500, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 8–20 hrs; apply Dr. Cherry, fall, Aug 1; spring, Jan 1. Master's: Guid; Doctorate: Guid & Couns.

Washington State University, Pullman. *Apply for Admis:* Dean Grad Sch & Dean Zeno B. Katterle, Sch of Educ; spring term or summer for admis in fall. *Assists:* number varies, $1,500–2,600, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dean Katterle, Mar; doctoral candidates only eligible 1st yr. *Other aid available:* contact J. C. Clevinger, Dean Stu. Master's: Guid, Guid & Couns; Doctorate: Guid & Pers, Guid & Couns, Couns Psych.

Wayne State University, Detroit, Mich. *Apply for Admis:* Joseph Hill, Exec Offcr, Grad Educ; fall term, Aug 15; spring term, Dec 15. *Tuition:* res $328; nonres $568. *Fellows:* 1, $2,300–2,900, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 1/2 time; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dean W. J. Menge, Coll Educ, one sem prior to actual admis. *Scholars:* several, stipend varies, tuition exempt in some cases, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dean Menge, one sem prior to actual admis. *Assists:* 1, $1,900, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 1/2 time; apply Dean Menge, one sem prior to actual admis. Master's & Doctorate: Guid & Couns.

West Virginia University, Morgantown, W. Va. *Apply for Admis:* W. A. Koehler, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Aug; spring term, Jan. *Tuition:* res $106; nonres $271. *Assists:* 3, $2,000, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 6 sem hrs; apply Dean Earl Boggs, Coll Educ, Dec. Master's: Guid.

Western Illinois University, Macomb. *Apply for Admis:* J. L. Archer, Dean, Sch Grad Studies; Jun 1. *Tuition:* res $159; nonres $330. *Assists:* 6, $1,620–2,250, Tuition not exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 30–40 hrs/wk; apply Jun 1. Master's Couns, Guid.

Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo. *Apply for Admis:* George Mallinson, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Feb 1. *Tuition:* res $66.50/sem; nonres $133/sem. *Fellows:* 10, $1,500, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 15 hrs/wk; apply Dean Mallinson, Mar 1. *Assists:* 100, Room & Board, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 25 hrs/wk; apply Arthur J. Manske, Prof Educ, Mar 1. Master's: Elem & Second Sch Couns, Sch Psychol, Dorm Couns, Bus & Indus Pers.

Western State College, Gunnison, Colo. *Apply for Admis:* Dir Grad Study, fall term (only), Apr 1. *Tuition:* res $35; nonres $80. *Assists:* 1, $1,250, only nonres tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 40 hrs/mo; apply Dir Grad Study, Apr 1. Master's: Educ (incl psych).

Wichita, University of, Wichita, Kans. *Apply for Admis:* Hugo Wall, Dean, Grad Sch, 3 wks prior to reg. *Tuition:* res $12.50/sem hr; nonres $15/sem hr; for "500" level course an extra $2.50/hr. *Fellows:* number varies, $1,500, $300 tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dean Wall, Mar 1. Master's: Educ (Pers–Stu & Guid), Psych (Pers Guid).

William & Mary, College of, Williamsburg, Va. *Apply for Admis:* Howard K. Holland, Head, Dept Educ; fall term, Jul 1; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* res $176/sem; nonres $361/sem. *Assists:* 2, $1,200, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 12–15 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Holland, Jul 1. Master's: Guid.

Winona State College, Winona, Minn. *Apply for Admis:* Frank Van Alstine, Dir, Grad Program; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Mar 13. *Tuition:* res $5/cr hr; nonres $7.50/cr hr. *Scholars:* number varies, no stipend, aid approx covers tuition & fees, no wrk; apply Financial Aids Comm, Apr 1 & quarterly thereafter. Master's.

Wisconsin, University of, Madison. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Apr 1. *Tuition:* Res $220/acad yr; nonres $370/acad yr. *Fellows:* 150, $400–2,500, nonres tuition exempt, fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Clifford Liddle, Chmn, Grad Sch Pers Comm, Feb 15. *Scholars:* 25, $300–1,100, nonres tuition exempt, fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Liddle, Feb 15. *Assists:* 10, $1,200–2,194, nonres tuition exempt, fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. John W. M. Rothney or Dr. Gail Farwell, 823 Irving Pl, Madison. Master's & Doctorate: Couns & Guid.

Wisconsin State College, Superior. *Apply for Admis:* F. N. Johnston, Dir Grad Div; fall term, Jul 1; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* res $200; nonres $336. *Assists:* varies, stipend varies, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 15–20 hrs/wk; apply Pres Jim Dan Hill, Jul 1. Master's: Coord Guid Servs, Couns, Psychomet.

Wyoming, University of, College of Education, Laramie. *Apply for Admis:* Robert H. Bruce, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Feb 1; spring term, Nov 1. *Tuition:* res $245/yr; nonres $507/yr. *Scholars:* 1, $250, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dean Bruce, Feb 1. *Assists:* 4–6, $1,500–$1,800; tuition & fees exempt; wrk 1/2 time; apply Dean Bruce, Feb 1. Master's: Guid, Psych; Doctorate: Educ Guid, Couns Educ.

Xavier University, Cincinnati, Ohio. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Sep 10; spring term, Jan 10. *Tuition:* $630. *Scholars:* 2–4, no stipend, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12 sem hrs min; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Apr 1. Master's: Educ Guid.

1st yr stus not eligible; apply Grad Sch, Mar 1. *Grad Grants-In-Aid:* 40, no stipend, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Grad Sch, Mar 1. *Assists:* 18, $800–1,200, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 10 hrs/wk; apply Dr. F. A. Miller, Head, Dept Educ Servs & Dr. A. Brayfield, Head of Dept Psych, Mar 1. Master's & Doctorate: Sch Guid, Coll Stu Pers Wrk, Rehab Couns, Couns Psych.

PEPPERDINE COLLEGE, Los Angeles, Calif. *Apply for Admis:* Grad Acad Council; fall term, Aug 1; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* $24/sem hr. *Scholars:* 4, 1/2 tuition, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Robert E. Holland, Chmn Dept Psych, Aug 1. *Assists:* 3, $75/mo, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 15–20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Holland, Aug 1. Master's: Psych—Clin-Couns, Educ, Speech Ther.

PITTSBURGH, UNIVERSITY OF, Pittsburgh, Pa. *Apply for Admis:* Theodore Polk, Coord Officer, Grad Sch; fall term, Aug 1; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* $32/cr. *Assists:* 10, $1,800, $600 tuition exempt, fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Robert W. Brittell, Assoc Dean, Educ, Mar 1. Master's & Doctorate: Guid in Second Schs.

PUGET SOUND, UNIVERSITY OF, Tacoma, Wash. *Apply for Admis:* Richard Smith, Dean, Dir of Admis; fall term, prior to Aug 1; spring term, prior to Jan 1. *Tuition:* $686. *Fellows:* 4, $1,500–2,000, tuition & most fees exempt, wrk 1/2 time; apply Dr. John D. Regester, Dean, Grad Sch, prior to Mar 15. *Assists:* 4, $1,500–2,000, tuition & most fees exempt, wrk 1/2 time; apply Dr. Regester, prior to Mar 15. Master's: Guid & Couns.

PURDUE UNIVERSITY, Lafayette, Ind. *Apply for Admis:* Lee E. Isaacson, Educ; John Hadley, Psych; fall term, May 15; spring term, Nov 15. *Tuition:* res $240; nonres $615. *Fellows:* 3–5, $1,000, tuition exempt, fees exempt except $39/sem, no wrk; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Mar 15. *Scholars:* number varies, no stipend, tuition exempt, fees exempt except $39/sem, no wrk; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Mar 15. *Assists:* 20, $1,800, tuition exempt, fees exempt except $39/sem, wrk 20 hrs; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Mar 15. Master's: Guid & Couns, Coll Pers; Doctorate: Guid & Couns, Coll Pers, Couns Psych.

RICHMOND, UNIVERSITY OF, Richmond, Va. *Apply for Admis:* R. J. Filer, Chmn, Dept Psych, or E. F. Overton, Chmn, Dept Educ; fall term, May 1; spring term, Dec 15. *Tuition:* $605. *Scholars:* 10–12, $50–100, tuition and fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. B. C. Holtzclaw, Chmn, Comm on Scholars, Mar 1. Master's: Educ.

ROCHESTER, UNIVERSITY OF, College of Education, Rochester, N. Y. *Apply for Admis:* Robert Howsam, Assoc Dean Grad Studies, Coll Educ; fall term, Sep 5; spring term, Jan 18. *Tuition:* $1,275. *Scholars:* 5, no stipend, tuition exempt, fees not exempt; apply Dr. Howsam, Apr. 1. *Assists:* 3, $130, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 15 hrs max; apply Dr. Howsam, Apr 1. Master's: Guid.

ROCKFORD COLLEGE, Rockford, Ill. *Apply for Admis:* Mary V. Braginton, Dean of Faculty; fall term; Aug 1; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* $700. *Scholars:* 1, no stipend, 1/2 tuition exempt ($350), fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dean of Faculty, Apr 1 or Aug 1. Master's: Tchng with sequence of courses in guid.

RUTGERS UNIVERSITY, Graduate School of Education, New Brunswick, N. J. *Apply for Admis:* C. Winfield Scott, Dir Adv Study; fall term, Aug 13; spring term, Dec 13. *Tuition:* $200/sem. *Scholars:* 1, stipend varies, tuition & fees possibly exempt, no wrk; 1st yr stus are not eligible; apply Dr. Scott. *Assists:* 4, $1,950, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk min 15 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Scott. Master's & Doctorate: Guid, Pers.

SACRAMENTO STATE COLLEGE, Sacramento, Calif. *Apply for Admis:* Dr. Emmett Thompson; fall term, Aug 15; spring term, Jan 9. *Tuition:* res $86; nonres $255. *Scholars:* 15, $200, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Algard P. Whitney, Financial Aid Offcr, Apr 1. Master's: Guid, Psych.

SAINT LOUIS UNIVERSITY, St. Louis, Mo. *Apply for Admis:* Dean Grad Sch. *Tuition:* $25/cr hr. *Fellows:* number varies, $1,500–2,000, tuition generally not exempt, fees not exempt, wrk up to 6 hrs/sem; apply Dean Grad Sch. *Scholars:* number & stipend vary, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk varies; apply Dean Grad Sch. *Assists:* number & stipend vary, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk varies; apply Dean Grad Sch. Master's: Educ, Psych; Doctorate: Educ.

SIENA HEIGHTS COLLEGE, Adrian, Mich. *Apply for Admis:* Sr. M. de Paul, O. P., Chmn, Grad Div. *Scholars:* number varies, no stipend, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Sr. M. de Paul, Apr. No part-time jobs are available. Master's: Guid & Couns.

SOUTH CAROLINA, UNIVERSITY OF, Columbia, S. C. *Apply for Admis:* Robert H. Wienefeld, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Jan 15. *Tuition:* res $120, nonres $350. *Assists:* 5, $900–2,500, tuition exempt at times, fees not exempt, wrk varies with indiv; apply Dean William W. Savage, Sch Educ, May 1. Master's: Guid (incl Couns), Meas, Reading; Doctorate: Psych Servs in Educ (emphasis on guid or on reading).

SOUTH DAKOTA, STATE UNIVERSITY OF, Vermillion. *Apply for Admis:* H. S. Schell, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Jul 1; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* res $99/sem; nonres $183/sem. *Assists:* 1, $1,700, tuition & fees not exempt; male applications only; apply Joseph T. Fisher, Head, Dept Educ Psych & Guid, Apr 1. Master's: Couns; Doctorate: Couns, Educ Psych.

SOUTH DAKOTA STATE COLLEGE, College Station, Brookings. *Apply for Admis:* Oscar Olson, Dean, Grad Div; fall term, Jun 1; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* res $66/qtr; nonres $122/qtr. *Assists:* number varies, $1,800–2,000, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 1/2 time; apply Dept Head, Apr 1. Master's: Educ Psych, Guid & Couns; Doctorate: Social Sci.

SOUTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY, Carbondale, Ill. *Apply for Admis:* Willis G. Swartz, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Aug 15. *Fellows:* 5, $110/mo, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 10 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Swartz, Jul 1. *Assists:* 5, $180/mo, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. E. D. Fitzpatrick, Chmn, Dept Guid, Jul 1. Master's: Guid & Couns, Coll Stu Pers; Doctorate: Guid & Couns.

SOUTHERN LOUISIANA, UNIVERSITY OF, Lafayette, La. *Apply for Admis:* Robert E. May, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Jul 15; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* res $30/sem; nonres $100/sem. *Assists:* 15, $1,500, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 15 hrs/wk max; apply Dean May, Mar 1. Majors in Couns & Guid, but no degree program.

SOUTHERN METHODIST UNIVERSITY, Dallas, Tex. *Apply for Admis:* Claude Albritton, Dean, Grad

Sch; fall term, Aug 31; spring term, Dec 31. *Tuition:* $650. *Scholars:* limited number, no stipend, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12 sem hrs; apply Dept Educ, Jun. Master's: Guid & Couns.

SPRINGFIELD COLLEGE, Springfield, Mass. *Apply for Admis:* Seth Arsenian, Dir, Grad Sch; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* $125/sem hr. *Fellows:* 10, $1,800, tuition, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Frank Eldridge, Dir, Voc Rehab Couns, Sep 1. *Scholars:* varies, stipend varies with need and acad record, tuition, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply William Lammers, Dir, Admis Off, Sep 1. *Assists:* 4, $600, tuition, fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs/wk; 6, $450, tuition, fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs/wk; apply Henry Paar, Dir, Div Guid & Pers Servs, Sep 1. Master's: Sch Guid, Bus & Indus, Soc Agencies, Stu Pers in Higher Educ, Clin, Correctional Institutions.

ST. JOHN'S UNIVERSITY, School of Education, Jamaica, N. Y. *Apply for Admis:* Henry Rossi, Registrar; two mos. before term begins. *Tuition:* $30/cr. *Fellows:* 5, $2,000–2,400 plus $400 for each dependent, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 6–9 sem hrs; 1st yr grad stus not eligible; apply Daniel C. Sullivan, Dir, Grad Div, Mar 15. *Scholars:* 2, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Sullivan, Mar 15. *Assists:* 6, $1,200–1,600, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 12 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Sullivan, Mar 15. Master's & Doctorate: Sch Psych, Guid & Pers Serv.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, Stanford, Calif. *Apply for Admis:* Off of Admis; fall term, Jun 1; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* $1,005. *Scholars:* 3–5, $1,000–2,500, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. H. B. McDaniel, Sch of Educ, Feb 1. *Assists:* 1, $1,000, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; 1st yr stus not eligible, apply H. B. McDaniel, Feb 1. Male applications only. Master's & Doctorate: Educ.

STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, Iowa City. *Apply for Admis:* Kenneth B. Hoyt, Assoc Prof, Coll Educ; fall term, Aug 21; spring term, Jan 5. *Tuition:* $280. *Fellows:* 2, $530, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. E. T. Peterson, Dean, Coll Educ, Mar 1. *Scholars:* 5, $100–280, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Peterson, Mar 1. *Assists:* 15, $450–3,500, tuition exempt if also granted scholarship, fees not exempt, wrk 10–30 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Peterson, Mar 1. Master's & Doctorate: Second Sch Couns & Guid, Coll Stu Pers Wrk, Rehab Couns.

STEPHEN F. AUSTIN STATE COLLEGE, Nacogdoches, Tex. *Apply for Admis:* Judson White, Head, Psych & Philos Dept, at registration. *Tuition:* res $88, nonres $238. *Assists:* 3, $1,800, plus apartment & board, tuition & fees exempt, wrk—dorm couns, male applications only; apply Dr. White, Jun 1. Master's: Couns & Guid, Acad Psych.

STOUT STATE COLLEGE, Menomonie, Wis. *Apply for Admis:* Ray Wigen, Dean, Grad Studies; 30 days in adv of enrollment date. *Tuition:* res $185; nonres $320. *Assists:* number varies, $800, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Wigen, May 1. Master's: Guid.

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY, Syracuse, N. Y. *Apply for Admis:* Grad Sch Educ or All-Univ Grad Sch; fall term, Apr 1. *Tuition:* $600. *Assists:* 20, about $500 plus room and board, 10 hrs tuition exempt, wrk ½ time; apply Dean Marjorie C. Smith & Dr. Ellen P. Fairchild, Co-Directors Stu Dean Program, Apr 1. Female applications only. Master's & Doctorate: Stu Pers Wrk.

TEMPLE UNIVERSITY, Philadelphia, Pa. *Apply for Admis:* C. H. Smeltzer, Chmn, Dept Psych, Coll A&S, Apr 1. *Tuition:* $25/cr hr. *Assists:* Stu Pers Off—5, $1,600, tuition exempt for 9 hrs, fees not exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Smeltzer, Apr 1. *Assists:* Dept Psych—varies, $1,600, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Smeltzer, Apr 1. *Internship:* Couns Psych—number & amount varies; apply Dr. Smeltzer, Apr. Master's: Psych (Genl), Couns & Guid; Doctorate: Couns Psych, Couns & Guid.

TENNESSEE, UNIVERSITY OF, Knoxville. *Apply for Admis:* L. M. DeRidder, Assoc Prof Educ Psych, Dept Curriculum & Instr, no deadline. *Tuition:* res none; nonres $300. *Scholars:* 5, $2,000 & $1,000, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk none; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Mar 1. *Assists:* 19, $1,200 & $1,000, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12–15 hrs/wk; apply Dr. E. M. Ramer (Doctoral & Masters); Dr. DeRidder (Tchng Assists), Mar 1. Master's: Guid & Pers; Doctorate: Curriculum & Instr with Guid Emphasis.

TEXAS, UNIVERSITY OF, Austin. *Apply for Admis:* David G. Ryans, Chmn Dept Educ Psych, at term registration. *Tuition:* res $50; nonres $200/sem. *Univ Fellows:* number varies, $1,800–2,400, nonres tuition possibly exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Ryans, Mar 1. *Dept Fellows:* 4, $1,500–2,000, nonres tuition possibly exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Ryans, Mar 1. Tchng Interns: 2 at $2,700; 4 at $1,600–3,000, nonres tuition possibly exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 20 hrs; apply Dr. Ryans, Mar 1. Master's: Sch Coun, Stu Pers (M.A. or M.Ed.); Doctorate: Couns Psych (VA), Couns Psych (Genl), Guid Dir, or Stu Pers.

TEXAS SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY, Houston. *Apply for Admis:* J. A. Pierce, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Aug 13; spring term April 17. *Tuition:* res $50/sem; nonres $150/sem. *Fellows:* 1, $50/mo, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 10 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Pierce, Apr 17. *Assists:* number varies, $75/mo, tuition & fees not exempt, teach one class; apply Dr. Pierce, Apr 17. Master's: Couns & Guid.

TEXAS TECHNOLOGICAL COLLEGE, Lubbock. *Apply for Admis:* S. J. Kaplan, Head, Dept Psych; fall term, Jun; spring term, Nov. *Tuition:* res $50; nonres $200. *Assists:* 5, $1,000–2,000, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk max 15 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Kaplan, Apr. *OVR Traineeships:* 20, $200/mo, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Beatrix Cobb, Dir, Couns Trng Prog, prior to Jul 1 of each yr. Master's: Rehab-Couns Psych, Sch Couns, Exper Couns (Genl); Doctorate: Couns Psych, Exper Couns.

TOLEDO, UNIVERSITY OF, Toledo, Ohio. *Apply for Admis:* A. N. Solberg, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Aug 1; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* res $15; nonres $21. *Assists:* $2,000–2,400, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 12 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Robert L. Gibson, Chmn, Dept Guid & Couns Educ, May 1. Master's: Guid & Couns (Second), Sch Psychol, Elem Sch Guid; Doctorate: Guid & Couns (Second), Stu Pers Admin in Higher Educ.

TUFTS UNIVERSITY, Medford, Mass. *Apply for Admis:* Dean Paul Flint, Grad Sch Arts & Sci; fall term, Jul 15; spring term, Jan 1. *Scholars:* 1, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply

exempt, no wrk; apply Dean Marcia Edwards, Coll Educ, Feb 15. *Fellows in Sch Psych:* 1, $1,800, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dean Edwards, Feb 15. *Assists:* (Educ Psych) 18, $1,058–2,115, res tuition & fees exempt, wrk 10–20 hrs/wk; advanced students preferred; apply Dean Edwards, Feb 15. *OVR Traineeships:* 8, open to Educ Psych & Psych students—see Psych Dept report. Master's & Doctorate: Educ Psych, 2-yr Spec Cert—HS couns, Couns-Educ, Higher Educ, Stu Pers Work, Couns Psych, & Sch Psych Servs. Department of Psychology *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Sch; Sep 1. *Tuition:* res $92; nonres $200. *Rehab Couns Traineeships:* 25, OVR, $1,800–3,400, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply L. H. Lofquist, Dept Psych, Feb 15. *VA Traineeships:* 12, $2,490–3,515, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 1/2 time; apply R. F. Berdie, Dir, Stu Couns Bur, Feb 15. *Assists:* 16, $1,057–2,115, tuition & fees payable at res rate, wrk 10–20 hrs; apply Dr. Lofquist, Dept Psych, Feb 15. *Research Assists:* (in Stu Couns Bur) $2,724, wrk 1/2 time for 12 mos; apply Dr. Berdie. Master's & Doctorate: Voc Couns, Pers. Student Counseling Bureau. *Apply for Admis:* Grad Sch, one mo prior to opening of qtr. *Tuition:* res $35.50 (6 cr or less), $71 (more than 6 cr); nonres $90 (6 cr or less), $180 (more than 6 cr). *Fellows:* 3, $2,820, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 1/2 time; apply Ralph F. Berdie, Prof & Dir, Stu Couns Bur, Mar 1. *Assists:* number varies, apply Dr. Berdie, Mar 1. Master's & Doctorate: Psych, Educ Psych.

Missouri, University of, Columbia. *Apply for Admis:* Dir Admis & Chmn, Dept Educ, or Chmn, Dept Psych; fall term, May 1; spring term, Nov 1. *Tuition:* Fees—$215. *Fellows:* number varies, $1,000–1,500, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Henry E. Bent, Dean Grad Sch, Mar 1. *Scholars:* number varies, $1,000, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Henry E. Bent. *Assists:* number varies, $1,250–2,000, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Educ—L. G. Townsend, Chmn; Psych—R. S. Daniel, Chmn. Master's Educ—Guid & Couns, Voc Rehab Couns; Psych—Child Guid, Psychomet; Doctorate: Educ—Guid & Couns, Couns Psych; Psych—Couns Psych.

Mississippi, University of, University. *Apply for Admis:* Lewis Nobles, Dean, Grad Sch; 2 wks prior to registration. *Tuition:* res $85.50; nonres $11.11/sem hr. *Fellows:* number varies, $1,600, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Nobles, Mar 1. *Assists:* 3, $1,800, tuition & fees not exempt, some wrk; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dr. S. A. Moorhead, Dean, Sch Educ. Master's: Guid, Couns.

Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg. *Apply for Admis:* P. L. Fortune, Dean, Grad Sch, or A. Lucas, Dir Admis; 2 wks before term begins. *Tuition:* $67.00/qtr (usually waived for nonres). *Fellows:* 3, $800, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 1/4 time; apply Dr. Fortune, Apr 1. Master's: Admin Pers & Couns; Doctorate: Guid & Couns.

Mississippi State University, State College. *Apply for Admis:* Off Grad Sch; fall term, Aug 1; spring term, Jan. 1. *Tuition:* res $5/cr hr; nonres $100/sem. *Assists:* number varies, $600, out-of-state tuition exempt, fees exempt, wrk 12 sem hrs; apply V. S. Mann, Oct & Jan. Master's: Second Sch Couns, Coll Pers.

Montana State College, Bozeman, Mont. *Apply for Admis:* Leon H. Johnson, Dean Grad Sch, May 15. *Tuition:* res $43/qtr; nonres $65.50/qtr. *Assists:* 3, $1,500 & up, tuition exempt, some fees exempt, wrk varies; apply Dr. M. S. Monson, Coord Grad Studies in Educ, May 15. Master's: Educ, Psych, Sociol.

Montana State University, Missoula. *Apply for Admis:* Ellis Waldron, Dean, Grad Sch; 1 mo prior to begin of term. *Tuition:* res $283 fees/yr; nonres $545 fees/yr. *Assists:* 3, $1,500, tuition, fees exempt, wrk 15 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Robert Gorman, Dir, Couns Cen, Mar 1. Master's: Couns & Guid.

Nebraska, University of, Lincoln. *Apply for Admis:* Charles O. Neidt, Chmn, Dept Educ Psych & Msmt; fall term, Aug 15; spring term, Jan 15. *Tuition:* res $120/sem; nonres $240/sem. *Fellows:* 2, tuition exempt, fees $15/sem, no work; apply Dr. Neidt, Mar 31. *Assists:* 6, $1,000, tuition exempt, fees $15/sem, wrk 12 hrs; apply Dr. Neidt, Mar 31. Master's: Stu Pers & Sch Couns; Doctorate: Couns Psych, Stu Pers.

Nevada, University of, Reno. *Apply for Admis:* Garold Holstine, Dean, Coll Educ, fall term, Aug. *Assists:* 1, $1,800 tuition & fees exempt, wrk 1/2 time; apply Dr. Holstine, May 1. Master's: Educ.

New Hampshire, University of, Durham. *Apply for Admis:* Chmn, Dept Educ; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* res $380; nonres $800. *Scholars:* number varies, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dean, Grad Sch, May 1. *Assists:* 1, $1,600, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk.; apply Chmn, Dept Educ, May 1. Master's: Guid & Couns, Couns Psych.

New Mexico, University of, Albuquerque. *Apply for Admis:* George L. Keppers; fall term, Aug 1; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* $15/hr. *Fellows:* number varies, $1,800, tuition not exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs; apply Dean Grad Sch, Mar 1. *Scholars:* number varies, $1,800, tuition not exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs; apply Dean Grad Sch, Mar 1. *Assists:* number varies, $1,800, tuition not exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs; apply Dean Grad Sch, Mar 1. Master's: Guid & Couns; Doctorate: Pupil Pers Servs.

New York University, School of Education, New York City. *Apply for Admis:* William Wilkins, Dept Guid & Pers Admin, Mar 1, or Off of Admis, Sch Educ 3 mos prior to opening of sem. *Tuition:* $40/pt. *Fellows:* 2, $2,500, 8 pts tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk-tch 2 courses; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Prof. Wilkins, Mar 1. *Teaching Fellows:* 20, $2,500, tuition exempt for 9 pts, fees not exempt, wrk 12 pts tchng/yr, 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dean John Payne, Sch Educ, Mar 1. *Scholars:* 20, no stipend, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dean Florence N. Beaman, Sch Educ, Mar 1. Master's & Doctorate: Rehab Couns, Guid, Stu Pers, Voc Guid, Guid in Second Schs, Pers Wrk in Coll, Voc Guid in Commun Agencies, Guid in Elem Schs.

North Carolina, University of, Chapel Hill, N. C. *Apply for Admis:* A. K. King, Sch Educ; fall term, 30 days prior to reg; spring term, Dec 31. *Tuition:* res $75/sem; nonres $250/sem. *Interns & Assists:* limited number available on part-time basis; for further info write Dr. W. D. Perry, Dir, Univ Test Serv, Box 998. Master's & Doctorate.

North Carolina State College, Raleigh. *Apply for Admis:* Roy N. Anderson, Head, Dept Occup Info & Guid; fall term, Jun 30. *Tuition:* fall term, $146;

spring term, $140. *Assists:* 1, $1,200, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Anderson, Jun 1. Master's: Guid & Pers.

NORTH DAKOTA, UNIVERSITY OF, Grand Forks. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Jun 1; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* res $90/sem; nonres $165/sem. *Assists:* 2–3, $1,800–2,100, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 1/2 time, apply Dr. Paul F. Munger, Psych Dept, or Dean, Grad Sch; Feb 28, 1st yr stus not eligible. *Head Resident & Floor Mgrs:* number & stipend vary, apply Dr. C. L. Lewis, Dean of Stus. Master's: Educ; Doctorate: Psych, Educ.

NORTH TEXAS STATE COLLEGE, Denton, Tex. *Apply for Admis:* Robert B. Toulouse, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* res $150; nonres $450. *Fellows:* 15, $100–200, tuition & fees not exempt; apply Dean A. W. Blair, Sch Educ. *Assists:* 5, $125–375, tuition & fees exempt; apply Dean Blair. Master's: Guid; Doctorate: Couns & Pers Admins.

NORTHEASTERN MISSOURI STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, Kirksville. *Apply for Admis:* Dr. Wray Rieger, Dean Instr, or Robert M. Wright, Prof Guid; fall term, Aug 1. *Tuition:* $35/qtr. *Fellows:* number varies, $225/qtr, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 3 hrs/day; apply Pres Walter H. Ryle, Jul 1. Master's: Elem & Second Sch Couns & Guid.

NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY, De Kalb, Ill. *Apply for Admis:* C. Norton Coe, Dean, Grad Sch, beginning of term. *Tuition:* res $105/sem; nonres $190/sem. *Assists:* 1, $1,350, tuition not exempt, fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Coe. Master's: Guid & Couns.

NORTHERN STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, Aberdeen, S. Dak. *Apply for Admis:* A. R. Sonsone; fall term, Aug 15; winter term, Nov 1; spring term, Feb 1. *Tuition:* res $198; nonres $344. *Assists:* number varies, $1,250, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 1/2 time; apply Dr. William C. Gemeinhardt, Mar 1. Master's: Educ, Guid, & Couns.

NORTHWESTERN STATE COLLEGE OF LOUISIANA, Natchitoches. *Apply for Admis:* Leo T. Allbritten, Dean Grad Sch, 30 days prior to term registration. *Tuition:* res—none, nonres $100/sem ($350 effective fall, 1961). *Assists:* 1, $300–450, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 200 hrs/sem; apply Dean Allbritten. Master's: Guid & Couns.

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY, Evanston, Ill. *Apply for Admis:* Moody E. Prior, Dean, Grad Sch. *Tuition:* $720. *Fellows:* number varies, $1,140, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 13 qtr hrs; apply Dean Prior, Mar 1. *Scholars:* number varies, stipend varies, tuition & fees usually exempt, wrk 13 qtr hrs; apply Dean Prior, Mar 1. *Assists:* 1, $1,300; 2, $1,100, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 12 hrs/wk; apply F. W. Miller, Chmn, Dept Guid & Pers Wrk, Mar 1. Master's & Doctorate: Guid & Coll Pers.

NOTRE DAME, UNIVERSITY OF, Notre Dame, Ind. *Apply for Admis:* Dean Grad Sch; Head, Dept Educ. Applicants are eligible for Univ grants, fellowships, and scholarships but each application is considered on its merits; number varies. Master's & Doctorate: Guid.

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, Columbus. *Apply for Admis:* Dir Admis, Entrance Board, 10 days prior to begin of each qtr. *Tuition:* res $270; nonres $645. *Fellows:* 1, $1,773–2,070, nonres tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dean Everett Walters, Grad Sch, Feb 15. *Scholars:* 2, $375, nonres tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dean Walters, Grad Sch, Feb 15. Number varies, $1,773, nonres tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dean Walters, Grad Sch, Feb 15. *Assists:* 30, $1,200–1,900, nonres tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dr. Earl Anderson, Chmn, Dept Educ; or Dr. Robert J. Wherry, Chmn, Dept Psych. Number varies, $1,305–1,917, nonres tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 15 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Anderson or Dr. Wherry. Master's: Guid, Couns Psych, Res Couns, Remed Educ, Educ Psych, Sch Psych, Special Educ; Doctorate: Guid, Couns Psych, Remed Educ, Educ Psych, Sch Psych, Special Educ.

OHIO UNIVERSITY, Athens. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Coll, or George E. Hill, Dir, Guid Trng Lab; fall term, Mar 1; spring term, Sep 1. *Tuition:* res $270; nonres $570. *Fellows:* 4, $2,200–3,000, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 18 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Hill, Mar 1 (Ph.D. stus only). *Scholars:* varies, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Hill, Mar 1. *Assists:* 5, $1,800–2,000, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 18 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Hill, Mar 1. *Dormitory Assists:* number varies, $1,800–2,000, tuition & fees exempt, wrk varies; apply Dr. Hill, Sep 1. Master's & Doctorate: Guid & Couns (Secondary), Stu Pers Wrk (Coll), Guid (Elem).

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY, Stillwater. *Apply for Admis:* Robert MacVicker, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Sep 16; spring term, Jan 25. *Tuition:* res $6/sem hr; Nonres $9/sem hr. *Fellows:* 6, $1,800–2,500, tuition exempt, fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Robert W. Scofield, Acting Head, Dept Psych, Apr 1. *Assists:* 4, $1,800–2,025, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 6/sem hrs; apply Dr. Scofield, Apr 1. Master's: Voc Rehab, Guid & Couns, Indus Pers; Doctorate: Couns & Guid, Sch Psychol, Psychomet, Mental Retard Couns.

OREGON, UNIVERSITY OF, Eugene. *Apply for Admis:* R. N. Lowe, Coord, Sch Psych Servs, Sch Educ. *Tuition:* $270/yr. *Fellows:* 4, $2,400, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dr. Miles Romney, Doctor's Admis Comm, Sch Educ, Feb 1 (preferably in the fall preceding the yr requesting). *Assists:* 3, $1,500, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 12 hrs; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dr. Romney, Feb 1. *Assists:* 14, $1,700, tuition exempt, fees exempt except $34/term, wrk 12–15 hrs/wk; apply Dr. R. F. Fagot, Chmn, Admis Comm, Dept Psych, Mar 7. Master's: Elem Sch Couns, Second Sch Couns, Teacher-Couns, Psych Examiner, Coll Pers, Rehab Couns; Doctorate: Educ Psych-Couns, Couns Psych.

PENNSYLVANIA, UNIVERSITY OF, School of Education, Philadelphia. *Apply for Admis:* T. E. McMullin, Vice-Dean Grad Div; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Jan 2. *Tuition:* $1,200 + $100; $50/cr, plus genl fee $50/sem. *Scholars:* 3, $1,200, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. McMullin, Mar 1. *Assists:* 7, $1,800–2,000, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dean William E. Arnold, or John E. Free, Sch Educ, Mar 1. Departmental Assists, Grant Assists, and other types of financial aid available; apply Grad Sch A&S, Div of Psych. Master's: Couns; Doctorate: Coll Admin, Dir of Guid, Couns.

PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY, University Park. *Apply for Admis:* Robert Tschan, Asst Dean, Grad Sch, no deadline. *Tuition:* res $480; nonres $960. *Fellows:* 11, $2,000, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk;

exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Assoc Head, Dept Psych. Master's: Clin & Couns Psych, Couns; Doctorate: Clin & Couns Psych, Sch Psych, Couns.

Illinois Institute of Technology, Chicago. *Apply for Admis:* P. S. Shurrager, Prof & Chmn, Dept Psych & Educ; fall term, Jun 1; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* $32/hr or $475/sem. *Fellows, Scholars, & Assists:* number, stipend, and tuition vary, fees exempt, wrk 9–14 hrs; apply Dr. J. C. Boyce, Dean, Grad Sch, Apr 1 & Dec 1. Masters & Doctorate: Indus Psych, Test & Msmt, Educ Psych.

Illinois State Normal University, Normal. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Sch or Howard Ivens, Dir Admis. *Tuition:* res $170; nonres $290. *Assists:* 2–4, $120/mo, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 1/2 time; apply Dr. Clarence W. Sorensen, Dean, Grad Sch, or Dr. Frank Philpot, Head, Dept Educ & Psych. Master's: Sch Psych, Couns, Guid.

Indiana State College, Indiana, Pa. *Apply for Admis:* I. L. Stright, Dir Grad Studies; fall term, Aug 31; spring term, Jan 15. *Tuition:* $15.00/sem hr. *Scholars:* limited number available, 1st yr stus not eligible. Master's: Guid, Couns.

Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Ind. *Apply for Admis:* Elmer J. Clark, Assoc Dean Instr, Grad Studies; fall term, Aug 1; spring term, Dec. 1. *Tuition:* $5.80/sem hr. *Fellows:* number varies, $3,000, tuition not exempt, out-of-state fees exempt, wrk—tch 2 classes; apply Dr. Richard E. Thursfield, Dean Instr, Mar 15. *Assists:* number varies, $1,500, tuition not exempt, out-of-state fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Thursfield, Mar 15. Master's: Guid & Couns, Sch Psychomet; Doctorate: Guid (in cooperation with Indiana Univ).

Indiana University, Bloomington. *Apply for Admis:* Grad Sch Educ, or Grad Sch; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Jan 15. *Tuition:* res $7/sem hr; nonres, $15.25/sem hr. *Fellows:* 3, $500–1,800, tuition exempt, no wrk; apply Howard Batchelder, Dean, Grad Sch Educ; before Mar 1. *Scholars:* 10, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply John Ashton, Dean Grad Sch; before Mar 1. *Assists:* 4, $1,200–2,600, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 15 hrs/wk; apply Howard Batchelder, Dean Grad Sch Educ; before Mar 1. Master's: Guid & Couns, Coll Pers. Doctorate: Guid & Couns, Coll Pers, Higher Educ.

Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa. *Apply for Admis:* Registrar. *Tuition:* $250. *Assists:* number varies, $1,100, all but $19.50 tuition exempt, fees exempt, wrk 10 hrs/wk; apply Dean of Instr, Mar 1. Master's: Guid & Couns.

John Carroll University, Cleveland, Ohio. *Apply for Admis:* E. C. McCue, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Sep; spring term, Feb. *Tuition:* $25/cr hr. *Assists:* 2, $1,800, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 6–9 sem hrs; apply Dr. Harvey Charles, Dir, Dept Educ, Feb 1. Master's: Guid & Couns.

Kansas, University of, Lawrence. *Apply for Admis:* John H. Nelson, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Feb 1. *Tuition:* res $208; nonres $308. *Fellows:* number varies, $740–1,240, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk up to 6 hrs/wk; apply Dean Nelson, Mar 1. *Scholars:* number varies, $740–1,240, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk up to 6 hrs/wk; apply Dean Nelson, Mar 1. *Assists:* number varies, $1,900–2,200, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk up to 1/2 time; apply Dean Nelson, Mar 1. Master's: Couns & Guid; Doctorate: Couns Psych.

Kansas City, University of, School of Education, Kansas City, Mo. *Apply for Admis:* Hugh Speer, Dean, Sch Educ. *Fellows:* number varies, $1,800, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs; apply Dr. Speer, early summer. Master's: Guid & Couns.

Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia. *Apply for Admis:* Laurence Boylan, Dean, Grad Div; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Jan 25. *Tuition:* res $140; nonres $235. *Fellows:* number varies, $500, tuition & fees exempt, wrk varies; apply Dr. Boylan, Mar 15. *Assists:* number varies, $900 (approx), tuition & fees exempt, wrk 80 hrs/mo; apply Dr. Boylan, Mar 15. Master's: Sch Guid Pers.

Kansas State University, Manhattan. *Apply for Admis:* William Bevan, Chmn, Dept Psych; fall term, Aug 15; spring term, Jan 15. *Tuition:* res $154/sem; nonres $104/sem. *Fellows:* 1, $500, out-of-state tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; 1st yr grad stus not eligible; apply Dr. Bevan, Mar 15. *Assists:* 8, $1,800–2,400, out-of-state tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 22 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Bevan, Mar 15. Master's & Doctorate: Gen-Exper, Compar-Physiol, Indus, Couns.

Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. *Apply for Admis:* Dwight L. Arnold, Guid Trng Lab, Aug. *Tuition:* res $60; nonres $85. *Scholars:* 2, $1,700, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 3 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Arnold, Apr. Master's: Guid Couns, Sch Psychol.

Kentucky, University of, Lexington. *Apply for Admis:* A. D. Kirwan, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Aug 15; spring term, Dec 30. *Tuition:* res $162, nonres $362. *Fellows:* varies, $750–2,400, out-of-state portion of tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk varies; apply Dean Kirwan. *Scholars:* varies, $600, out-of-state portion of tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk varies; apply Dean Kirwan. *Assists:* 1–4, $1,500–1,700, out-of-state portion of tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Joann Chenault (assists in guid & couns prog). 1–2, $750–850, out-of-state portion of tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 10 hrs/wk; apply Dr. George Rogers (assists in Univ Couns Off). Master's & Doctorate: Couns, Guid.

Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pa. *Apply for Admis:* Dir of Admis; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Jan 5. *Tuition:* $800. *Fellows:* 2, $750–1,500, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dir Admis, Mar 1. *Scholars:* 12, no stipend, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dir Admis, Mar 1. *Assists:* 1, $2,000, tuition exempt—20 sem/hrs/yr, fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dir Admis, Mar 1. Master's: Guid & Couns, Psych Examiner, Sch Psychol.

Long Beach State College, Long Beach, Calif. *Apply for Admis:* Louis J. Stacker, Head, Spec Servs Credentials, Div of Educ & Psych, Apr 1. Some general aid available for grad study; apply Dr. Richard C. Oldenburg, Stu Pers Off. Master's: Educ with Guid emphasis.

Long Island University, Brooklyn, N. Y. *Apply for Admis:* J. I. Hartstein, Dean, Sch Educ; fall term, May 1; spring term, Nov 1. *Tuition:* $30/sem. *Assists:* several, $1,000 (acad yr), tuition exempt (with a few exceptions), fees exempt; wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dean Hartstein, Mar 1 for summer, May 1 for fall, Nov 1 for spring. Master's: Guid (Elem, Second, Soc Agency); Profes Diploma (2 grad yrs).

Los Angeles State College of Applied Arts & Sciences, Los Angeles, Calif. *Apply for Admis:* James B. Enochs, Dean, Grad Studies. *Tuition:* res $42/sem; nonres $8.50 extra/unit. *Scholars:* 15, $1,800, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Donald G. Mortensen, Head, Dept Guid, or Joseph Stubbins, Coord, Rehab Couns, Aug 1. Masters: Guid, Couns (Rehab).

Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge. *Apply for Admis:* Dean Grad Sch, or Head Dept Educ. *Tuition:* res $110/acad yr ($50 exempt with Assist); nonres $220 ($150 exempt with Assist). *Assists:* 2, $1,000, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs/wk; apply Head, Dept Educ. 2, $1,200, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs/wk; apply Head, Dept Educ. No part-time jobs available. Master's: Educ, Arts; Doctorate: Educ, Philos.

Loyola University, Chicago, Ill. *Apply for Admis:* Fr. Dollard, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Jun 30; spring term, Dec 30. *Tuition:* $750/yr. *Fellows:* 8, stipend varies, tuition exempt after 1st yr, fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Fr. Dollard, Mar 1. *Scholars:* 3, stipend varies, tuition exempt after 1st yr, fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs; apply Fr. Dollard, Mar 1. *Assists:* 3, stipend varies, tuition exempt after 1st yr, fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Fr. Dollard, Mar 1. Master's & Doctorate: Exper, Indus, Clin.

MacMurray College, Jacksonville, Ill. *Apply for Admis:* Dean Wendell S. Dysinger or Dr. Curtis Gilgash, Dept Psych; fall term, May 1. *Tuition:* $1,108 (2 sem & summer). *Scholars:* 1, $500, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 5 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Gilgash, May 1. 1, $1,475, tuition and fees exempt, wrk 12 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Gilgash, May 1. *Assists:* 6, $1,009, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 8 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Gilgash, May 1. Master's: Clin Psych.

Maine, University of, Orono. *Apply for Admis:* Dean E. N. Brush, Grad Dept; fall term, Jul 15. *Tuition:* res $400; nonres $800. Some scholarships available, tuition exempt, no wrk; apply Dean Brush, Apr 1. Masters: Guid.

Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wis. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Sch, fall term. *Tuition:* $22/sem. *Scholars:* 100, no stipend, tuition exempt, fees $660, no wrk; apply Dean Grad Sch, Mar 1. *Assists:* 130, $1,600–1,900, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 1/2 time; research assists—1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Mar 1. Master's: Guid & Couns, Elem, Second, & Coll.

Marshall College, Huntington, W. Va. *Apply for Admis:* A. E. Harris, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Aug 1; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* res $150; nonres $450. *Assists:* 1, $1,050, tuition, fees exempt, wrk 20/wk; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dr. W. W. Morris, Chmn, Dept Educ, Apr 1. Master's: Guid, Couns.

Maryland, University of, College Park. College of Education. *Apply for Admis:* Guid, Pers—Coll Educ; Couns Psych—Dept Psych; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Feb 1. *Tuition:* $12/sem. *Fellows:* 2, $800, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dean, Coll Educ. *Assists:* 2, $1,800, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs; apply Dean, Coll Educ. Department of Psychology. *Apply for Admis:* T. G. Andrews, Head, Psych Dept; fall term, Mar 15; spring term, Nov 15. *Tuition:* $120. *Fellows:* 1, $900, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Andrews, Mar 15. *Assists:* 5, $1,800–2,100, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 10–20 wk; apply Dr. Andrews, Mar 15. Student Personnel. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Feb 1. *Assists:* 40, $1,800 (also room), tuition & fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs; apply Dr. Bernard Hodinkin, Dir Hous, Jun 1. Master's: Guid & Pers Admin, Guid & Couns, Stu Pers; Doctorate: Guid & Pers Admin, Guid & Couns, Mental Health (Couns-Clin Psych), Stu Pers.

Miami, University of, Coral Gables, Fla. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Sch. *Tuition:* $35/cr. *Fellows:* 7, $2,000, tuition usually exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 6 crs tchng or equivalent; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dr. Riis Owre, Dean, Grad Sch, Mar. 1. *Assists:* 4, $1,200, tuition normally exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Owre, Mar 1. Master's & Doctorate: Guid & Couns.

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. *Apply for Admis:* Bunker Wright, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Apr 1; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* res none; nonres $150. *Scholars:* (Grants-in-Aid) 10, no stipend, out-of-state tuition exempt, no wrk; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Mar 1. *Assists:* 10, 1/2 time $2,000, 1/4 time $1,000, out-of-state tuition exempt, 1/2 time wrk 20 hrs, 1/4 time wrk 10 hrs; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Mar 1. Master's: Guid & Couns, Pers Couns, Sch Psych, Visitng Tchr.

Michigan, University of, School of Education, Ann Arbor. *Apply for Admis:* Horace H. Rackham Sch of Grad Studies. *Fellows & Scholars:* varying types and kinds available, stipend & conditions vary; apply Sch Grad Studies. *Assists:* 2, stipend & conditions vary; apply Dean W. C. Olson, Sch Educ. Master's: Meas & Eval, Sch Psych, Guid & Couns; Spec in Educ: Psych Foundations of Educ, Guid & Couns; Doctorate: Guid & Couns, Sch Psych.

Michigan State University, College of Education, East Lansing, Mich. *Apply for Admis:* C. E. Erickson, Dean, Coll of Educ; fall term, Aug 15; winter term, Dec 1; spring term, Mar 15. Tuition: res $93/term; nonres $215/term. *Fellows & Scholars:* 35 (rehab major only), $1,800–3,400, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk full time; apply Dr. Erickson, Mar 1. *Assists:* 7–10, $2,000–2,200, tuition not exempt, out-of-state fees exempt, wrk 10/cr hr; apply Dr. Erickson, Mar 1. *Other:* Head Advisor—Res Hall: 11, $1,046–4,265 (apt furn 12 mos; board 10 mos; 1 apt hus & wife), out-of-state tuition exempt, fees not exempt; apply Dir Men's/Women's Div Stu Affairs. *Grad Advisors:* 16, $965–1,015 (plus apt 12 mos, board 10 mos), out-of-state tuition exempt, fees not exempt; apply Dir Men's/Women's Div Stu Affairs. *Res Assists:* 68, $765 (board & room 10 mos), out-of-state tuition exempt, fees not exempt; apply Dir Men's/Women's Div Stu Affairs. Master's & Doctorate: Guid & Couns, Coll Pers Wrk, Rehab Couns.

Millikin University, Decatur, Ill. *Apply for Admis:* V. F. Dawald, Chmn, Grad Div Educ; fall term, Sep 1, spring term, Jan 1; summer term, May 15. *Tuition:* $21/sem hr. *Assists:* number varies, tuition exempt, wrk 9 hrs; apply Dr. Dawald, Aug 1. Master's: Guid.

Minnesota, University of, Minneapolis. College of Education. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, 30 days before opening of any qtr. *Tuition:* res $71/qtr; nonres $180/qtr—half of this amount for 6 crs or less, or for thesis only. *OVR Fellowships:* open to students in Educ Psych & Psych—4, $2,000, tuition not exempt, fees

fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Jones, Jun 1. Master's: Tests & Eval, Guid & Couns.

COLGATE UNIVERSITY, Hamilton, N. Y. *Apply for Admis:* R. O. Rockwood, Dir Grad Studies, or G. E. Schlesser, Dept Educ; fall term, Sep. *Tuition:* $40/sem hr. *Preceptors:* 14, stipend: $1,300 1st yr unmarried, $1,400 1st yr married, $1,500 2nd yr unmarried, $1,600 2nd yr married, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 1/2 time; apply Dr. Glenn E. Waas, Dir Preceptorial Studies. Men preferred. Master's.

COLORADO, UNIVERSITY OF, Boulder. *Apply for Admis:* Stephen Romine, Dean, Sch Educ; fall term, May 1; spring term, Oct 1. *Tuition:* res $101/sem; nonres $277/sem. *Fellows:* 6, to $1,500, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no work; apply Dr. Romine, Mar 1. *Scholars:* 12, no stipend, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Romine, Mar 1. *Assists:* number varies, stipend open, 1/4 time tuition & fees exempt, some wrk; apply Dr. Romine, Mar 1. Master's: Stu Pers Wrk, Couns; Doctorate: Couns, Stu Pers Wrk in Pub Schs & Colls.

COLORADO STATE UNIVERSITY, Fort Collins. *Apply for Admis:* Walter R. Horlacher, Dean Grad Sch, Sep 15. *Tuition:* res $70/qtr; nonres $170/qtr. *Assists:* 1, $1,200, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Gorden Quiller, Dept Psych & Educ. Master's: Psych, Couns, & Guid.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, TEACHERS COLLEGE, New York City. *Apply for Admis:* Kenneth H. Beesley, Exec Off in Chg of Admis; fall term, Aug 1; spring term; Jan 1. *Tuition:* $37/cr. *Fellows, Scholars, Assists:* number, stipends, & conditions vary on basis of acad promise & financial need; apply Mr. Donald A. Boulton, Coord, Stu Aid, Dec 15. Master's: Rehab Couns, Voc Couns, Stu Pers Admin, Guid, Improv of Reading; Doctorate: Couns Psych, Stu Pers Admin, Guid, Improv of Reading.

CONNECTICUT, UNIVERSITY OF, Storrs. *Apply for Admis:* E. A. Wicas, Asst Prof Couns Educ; fall term, Jul 1; spring term, Jan 15. *Tuition:* $150 & fees. *Assists:* 5, $1,327.50, tuition, fees not exempt, wrk 1/2 time; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dean, Sch Educ, U-64, Mar 1. Master's: Educ; Doctorate: Educ, Guid, Pers.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY, Ithaca, New York. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Feb 1; spring term, Nov 1. *Tuition:* res $150/term; nonres $512.50/term. *Fellows:* number varies, stipend varies, tuition exempt, fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. A. Gordon Nelson, Prof Educ & Voc Guid, Sch Educ, Feb 9. *Scholars:* number varies, stipend varies, tuition exempt, fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Nelson, Feb 9. *Assists:* number varies, stipend varies, tuition exempt, fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Nelson, Feb 9. Master's & Doctorate: Guid & Pers. Admin.

DELAWARE, UNIVERSITY OF, Newark. *Apply for Admis:* Carl J. Rees, Dean, Sch Grad Studies, fall term. *Tuition:* $13/cr hr. *Fellows:* 1, $2,000, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dean Rees, Jun preceding opening session. *Assists:* 20, subsistence plus varying stipend, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dean Rees, Jun preceding opening session. Master's: Psych, Educ.

DENVER, UNIVERSITY OF, Denver, Colo. *Apply for Admis:* Alfred C. Nelson, Dean, Grad Coll; 4 wks before qtr begins. *Tuition:* $16 qtr/hr. *Fellows:* number varies, $2,000, 5 qtr hrs tuition exempt, fees exempt, wrk varies, 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Mar 15. *Fellows:* 5, $2,500, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 30 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Harold E. Moore, Dir, Sch Educ, May 1. *Assists:* 12, $1,600–2,400, 5 qtr hrs tuition exempt, fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; (Couns Assists open only to doctoral candidates); apply Daniel D. Feder, Dean Stus, Mar 15. *Other Assists Available:* number and stipends vary, 5 qtr hrs tuition exempt, fees exempt, wrk—housing duties; apply Dr. Feder, Mar 15. Master's: Guid & Couns, Couns Psych, Stu Pers; Doctorate: Couns Psych, Higher Educ & Couns, Couns & Guid, Stu Pers.

DE PAUL UNIVERSITY, Chicago, Ill. *Apply for Admis:* Rev. William Cortelyou, C.M., Dean, Grad Sch; fall term; Sep 15. *Tuition:* $620. Some fellowships available; awarded on basis of need; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Aug. 1. Master's: Couns, Sch Psych.

DUKE UNIVERSITY, Durham, N. C. *Apply for Admis:* Dir of Admis, Grad Sch of A&S; fall term, Feb 15; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* $487.50/sem. *Scholars:* number varies, $975–2,000, tuition not exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dir of Admis, Feb 15. *Assists:* 2, $1,800, tuition not exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12–14 hrs/wk; apply Dir of Admis, Feb 15. Master's: Guid & Couns (Educ Dept); Doctorate: Couns Psych (Psych Dept).

DUQUESNE UNIVERSITY, Pittsburgh, Pa. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Jan 1; spring term, Oct 1. *Tuition:* $783. *Assists:* 2, $1,440 (12 mos), tuition & fees exempt, wrk 25 hrs/wk; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Feb 1. Master's: Educ.

EAST CAROLINA COLLEGE, Greenville, N. C. *Apply for Admis:* J. K. Long, Dir, Grad Studies; John Horne, Registrar; fall term, Sep 1; winter term, Nov 28; spring term, Mar 1. *Tuition:* res $45/qtr; nonres $106/qtr. Some financial aid available; apply Dr. E. J. Carter, Head, Educ Dept. Master's: Guid (Elem & Second Sch Couns).

EAST TEXAS STATE COLLEGE, Commerce. *Apply for Admis:* William E. Truax, Dir Stu Pers & Guid; fall term, Aug; spring term, Dec. *Tuition:* res $152; nonres $452. *Scholars:* number varies; apply Dr. Truax, May 1. *Assists:* number varies; apply Dr. Truax, May 1. Master's: Educ.

EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY, Charleston. *Apply for Admis:* Dean of Faculty; fall term, Jun 30. *Tuition:* res $69/qtr; nonres $88.33/qtr. *Assists:* 12, $120 per mo, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 1/2 time; apply Dean of Stus, Jun 15. Master's: Guid & Couns.

EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY, Ypsilanti. *Apply for Admis:* James Glasgow, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Feb 1. *Tuition:* res $114/sem; nonres $180.50/sem. *Assists:* 2, $450, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 10 hrs/wk; apply Dean Glasgow, 2 mos prior to begin of sem. 1, $900, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dean Glasgow, 2 mos prior to begin of sem. Master's: Sch Guid Couns.

EASTERN MONTANA COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, Billings. *Apply for Admis:* Dean T. E. Moriarty or William A. Garrison, Head, Psych & Guid Dept; fall term, Sep 1. *Tuition:* res $263.75; nonres $456.75. *Assists:* 1, $1,200, $263.75 tuition exempt, fees exempt, wrk 20–25 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Garrison, May 15. Master's: Guid & Couns, Elem & Second Educ, Special Educ, Reading, Speech, & Hearing.

Eastern New Mexico University, Portales. *Apply for Admis:* Gail Shannon, Dean, Acad Affairs; fall term, Jul 1; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* res $100; nonres $200. *Assists:* 2, $1,200, tuition not exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 10 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Shannon, Mar 1. Master's: Psych, Pers Servs, Guid (Educ).

Eastern Washington College of Education, Cheney, Wash. *Apply for Admis:* Dir, Grad Study; fall term, Sep 9; spring term, not specified. *Tuition:* none, fees $45.50/qtr. *Assists:* 7, $1,500, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk approx 15 hrs/wk; apply Dir, Grad Study. Master's: Guid & Couns (Educ).

Florida, University of, Gainesville. *Apply for Admis:* Robert O. Stripling, Head, Dept Pers Servs, Coll Educ; fall term, Aug 1; spring term, Dec 30. *Tuition:* res $180; nonres $350. *Fellows:* varies, $1,375–1,800, out-of-state tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Stripling, Feb 15. *Teaching Assists:* varies, $3,000, out-of-state tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 15 hrs/wk. *Assists:* varies, $1,800–2,700, out-of-state tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs/wk. *Post-doctoral Assists:* varies, $6,000–7,000, out-of-state tuition exempt, fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Stripling, Feb 15. Master's & Doctorate: Guid, Pers Servs.

Florida State University, Tallahassee. *Apply for Admis:* H. F. Cottingham, Head, Guid & Couns; fall term, Aug 15; spring term, Jan 2. *Tuition:* res fees—$180; nonres $350. *Fellows:* number varies, $1,800, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Aug 15; spring term, Jan 2. *Assists:* 3 or more, $1,800, tuition & fees exempt, wrk $^1/_4$ time—10 hrs/wk or $^1/_2$ time—20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Cottingham; fall term, Aug 15; spring term, Jan 2. Master's: Couns Psych, Guid & Couns; Doctorate: Clin Psych, Guid & Couns.

Fordham University School of Education, New York City. *Apply for Admis:* William A. Kelly, Dir of Grad Studies. *Tuition:* $30/point. *Scholars:* 6, no stipend, tuition & fees exempt, no wk; apply Dr. Kelly, Feb 15. *Assists:* 6, $800–$1,200, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs; apply Dr. Kelly, Feb 15. Master's & Doctorate: Guid, Pers, Educ Psych, and Msmt.

Furman University, Greenville, S. C. *Apply for Admis:* Charles W. Burts, Dean, Grad Studies; fall term, Jul 1; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* $850. *Fellows:* 4, $450, tuition, fees not exempt, wrk 8 hrs/wk; apply Dean Burts. *Scholars:* 4, $200, tuition exempt, fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dean Burts. Master's: Educ, Psych.

George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn. *Apply for Admis:* Lawrence Wrightsman, Exec Offcr, Dept Psych; fall qtr, Jul 1; spring qtr, Jan 1. *Tuition:* $650. *Fellows:* 5, $1,800–3,000, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Wrightsman, 3 mos prior to entrance. *Scholars:* number varies, stipend varies, tuition and fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Chmn, Scholarships Comm, 3 mos prior to entrance. *Assists:* 5, $2,000–2,400, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk $^1/_2$ time—20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Wrightsman, 3 mos prior to entrance. Master's: Couns & Guid; Doctorate: Couns & Guid, Sch Psych, Clin, Pers Wrk.

Georgia, University of, Athens. *Apply for Admis:* Gerald Huff, Dean, Grad Sch; 20 days prior to beginning of term. *Tuition:* res $65/qtr; nonres $165/qtr. *Assists:* number varies, $1,500, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. J. E. Greene, Dir, Grad Studies, Coll Educ, Feb. 1. Master's: Guid & Couns (Elem & Second); Doctorate: Guid & Couns (Second).

Hartford, University of, West Hartford, Conn. *Apply for Admis:* Irving S. Starr, Dean, Sch Educ; fall term, Apr 1. *Tuition:* $25/cr. *Assists:* 2, $750–1,000, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply John W. Addley, Dean Stus, Apr 1. Master's: Guid (Elem and Second), Psych Examiner, Guid Dir.

Harvard University, Graduate School of Education, Cambridge, Mass. *Apply for Admis:* Joseph J. Young, Jr, Dir of Admis, Lawrence Hall, Grad Sch of Educ; fall term, May 1; spring term, Nov 1. *Tuition:* $1,250. *Fellows, Scholars, Assists:* number varies, $5,500 (max), aid often made available in package of various forms of financial assistance. The amount of aid depends on acad promise of stu and his financial need; wrk load varies, apply Comm on Financial Aid to Stus before Apr 1. Master's: Sch Guid, Psychomet, Admin of Guid Servs.

Hawaii, University of, Honolulu. *Apply for Admis:* Robert Hiatt, Dean, Grad Sch. *Tuition:* $95. *Scholars:* 2, stipend varies, tuition varies, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Hiatt, Mar 15. *Assists:* 1, $2,040, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk $^1/_2$ time; apply Dr. Bruce White, Dean, Faculties, Mar 15. Master's: Guid & Couns, Couns Psych.

Hofstra College, Hempstead, N. Y. *Apply for Admis:* Admis Off or Dr. M. Chappell, Chmn, Psych Dept. *Tuition:* $30/pt. *Fellows:* 1, $900/yr, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs; apply Dr. Chappell, May 20. *Assists:* 2–4, $300/yr, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 6–12 hrs; apply Dr. Chappell, May 20. No part-time jobs available. *Scholars:* 2, $900, tuition and fees exempt, no wrk; apply Boyd M. Bortner, Chmn, Div Educ, Apr 1. Master's: Guid, Sch Psych, Clin Psych.

Houston, University of, Houston, Tex. *Apply for Admis:* L. T. Callicutt, Chmn, Dept Psych; fall term, May 1; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* $600. *Fellows:* number varies, $300–600/sem, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk equiv 2 courses; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dr. Callicutt, Apr 30. Master's; Couns; Doctorate: Couns Psych.

Idaho, University of, Moscow. *Apply for Admis:* Eugene Giles, Prof Psych. *Tuition:* fees about $70. *Fellows:* 3, $2,000, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk variable; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Wm. H. Boyer, Head, Dept Psych. *Assists:* 1, $900, tuition & fees exempt, wrk varies; apply Dr. Boyer, Master's & Doctorate: Guid.

Illinois, University of, Urbana. College of Education. *Apply for Admis:* F. H. Finch, Coord Grad Study in Educ. *Tuition:* res $150; nonres $500. *Fellows:* several, $1,500, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Finch, Feb 15. *Scholars:* several, no stipend, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Finch, Feb 15. *Assists:* several, $2,000–2,800, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Finch, late winter or spring. Department of Psychology *Apply for Admis:* Assoc Head, Dept Psych; fall term, Mar 1. *Tuition:* Res $186; nonres $536. *Univ Fellows:* varies, $1,500, tuition, fees exempt, no wrk; apply Assoc Head, Dept Psych, Feb 15. *Tuition Scholars:* varies, stipend: res $186, nonres $536, no wrk; apply Assoc Head, Dept Psych, Feb 15. *Tchng & Resch Assists:* varies, $1,900, tuition, fees

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A & M College of Texas, College Station. *Apply for Admis:* Wayne C. Hall, Dean, Grad Sch. *Tuition:* res $100; nonres $400. *Assists:* 3, $1,500 (9 mos), tuition & fees not exempt; male applications only; apply Dr. Grady P. Parker, Dept Educ & Psych, Mar 1. Master's: Couns (Sch).

Adams State College, Alamosa, Colo. *Apply for Admis:* Vernon E. Hungate, Dean, Div Grad Studies. *Tuition:* res $35/qtr; nonres $80/qtr. *Assists:* 1, $1,250, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs; apply Fred J. Plachy, Pres. Master's: Educ, Guid, & Couns.

Akron, University of, Akron, Ohio. *Apply for Admis:* Dean Ernest Cherrington; fall term, May 1; spring term, Nov 1. *Tuition:* city res $22/cr hr; non-city-res $27/cr hr. *Scholars:* apply Dean D. J. Guzzetta, May 1. Master's: Sch Couns, Sch Social Wrkr, Sch Psychol.

Alabama, University of, University. *Apply for Admis:* Eric Rodgers, Dean, Grad Sch, 6 wks in advance of term. *Tuition:* res $210 (adjusted for acad load); nonres exempt. *Fellows:* 30, $1,200–2,000, nonres tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 3–6 hrs tchng; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dr. Rodgers, Mar 1. *Scholars:* 20, $850, nonres tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Rodgers, Mar. 1. *Assists:* number varies, $1,350–1,800, nonres tuition exempt, fees not exempt, work $^1/_4$ time; apply Dr. Rodgers, Mar 1. *Couns Assists:* number varies, board-room, tuition exempt, fees exempt, wrk 21 hrs/wk; apply Dean of Men, Dean of Women, Mar 1. Master's: Couns & Guid; Doctorate: Educ Psych & Guid.

Alfred University, Alfred, N. Y. *Apply for Admis:* fall term, Aug 1; spring term, Jan 15. *Tuition:* $1,000. *Fellows:* 2, no stipend, tuition & fees exempt; no wrk; apply Mar 15. *Assists:* 2, no stipend, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 10–15 hrs/wk; apply Mar 15. Master's: Educ (Guid), Psych.

Appalachian State Teachers College, Boone, N. C. *Apply for Admis:* Cratis Williams, Dir Grad Studies; fall term, Aug 15; winter term, Nov 15; spring term, Feb 15. *Tuition:* res $193.50; nonres $403.50. *Fellows:* 6, $900–1,200, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 20–25 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Williams, Apr 15. *Assists:* 4, $450–600, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 10–15 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Williams, Apr 15. Master's: Guid, Couns.

Arizona State University, Tempe, Ariz. *Apply for Admis:* Robert A. Heimann, Guid Cen; fall term, Jun 1; spring term, Nov 1. *Tuition:* res $190; nonres $690. *Assists:* 1, $1,000, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs; apply Dr. James L. Jelinek, Prof Educ, Coll Educ, Jun 1, 1st yr stus not eligible; male applications only. Masters: Guid & Couns; Doctorate: Couns Psych.

Arizona, University of, College of Education, Tucson. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Coll. *Tuition:* res none; nonres $250/sem (subject to change upward). *Fellows:* 6, $1,200, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs; apply Dean, Coll Educ. Master's & Doctorate: Second Sch Guid, Stu Pers Wrk in Higher Educ.

Arkansas, University of, Fayetteville. *Apply for Admis:* V. W. Adkisson, Dean, Grad Sch, or C. H. Cole, Couns Serv; fall term, Jul 1; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* res $200; nonres $470. *Assists:* 2, $1,000, nonres tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk $^1/_4$ time; apply Dr. Cole, Apr 1. Master's & Doctorate: Couns.

Atlanta University, Atlanta, Ga. *Apply for Admis:* Paul I. Clifford, Registrar; fall term, Aug 15; spring term, Dec 15. *Tuition:* $350. *Fellows:* 10, $1,000, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Clifford, May 1. *Scholars:* 5, $300–500, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Clifford, May 1. Master's: Second Sch Couns, Coll Pers Wrk.

Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind. *Apply for Admis:* Robert Koenker, Dir, Grad Study; fall term, Aug 1. *Tuition:* res $72/qtr; nonres $102/qtr. *Fellows:* 1, $2,000 (+ for experience), tuition & fees exempt, wrk $^1/_2$ time–20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. G. Robert Ross, Dean Stu Affairs, Aug 1. *Assists:* 10, $1,200–1,800, tuition not exempt, fees not exempt, wrk $^1/_2$ time; apply Dr. M. C. Beyerl, Dir Couns & Tstng Cen. Master's: Couns & Guid; Ed.S: 6th Yr Specialist, Couns & Guid.

Baylor University, Waco, Tex. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Sch; fall term; Aug 1; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* $16.50/sem hr. *Fellows:* 2, $1,100–2,200, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 9 hrs; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dean, Sch Educ, Apr 1. *Assists:* 4, $900, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 12 hrs; apply Dean, Sch Educ, Apr 1. Master's & Doctorate: Guid & Couns.

Boston College, Chestnut Hill, Mass. *Apply for Admis:* Dean, Grad Sch. *Tuition:* $30/cr hr. *Fellows:* number varies, $1,200–1,800, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 6–8 hrs; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Mar 15. Some scholars as tuition-free grants. *Assists:* number varies, $1,300, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 10 hrs; apply Dean Grad Sch, Mar 15. Master's: Educ, Tchng; Doctorate: Educ (Ph.D. or D.Ed.).

Boston University, Boston, Mass. *Apply for Admis:* Dugald S. Arbuckle, Prof of Educ; fall term, summer; spring term, winter. *Tuition:* $1,150. *Fellows:* number varies, $1,350, tuition, fees exempt, wrk 6–8 hrs; 1st yr stus not eligible; apply Dr. Arbuckle, spring. *Scholars:* number varies, tuition, fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Arbuckle, spring. *Assists:* number varies, tuition, fees exempt, wrk 15 hrs; apply Dr. Arbuckle, spring. Master's & Doctorate: Sch Couns (Educ), Sch Couns (Sociol), Coll Pers Servs, Sch Psychol, Rehab Couns, Couns Psychol. Regular gov grants for rehab couns and for couns psych. For rehab couns write Julian Myers; for Couns Psych write John Gilmore.

Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio. *Apply for Admis:* Lloyd Helms, Dean, Grad Sch; fall term, Jul 1; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* res $325; nonres $625. *Assists:* 2, $1,200, tuition for acad yr & following summer exempt, fees $62.50/sem & $22.50/summer session exempt, wrk 15 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Helms, Mar 1. Part-time work not guaranteed. Master's: Guid & Couns, Sch Psych.

Bradley University, Peoria, Ill. *Apply for Admis:* Dean Grad Sch; fall term, Aug 15; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* $790. *Scholars:* 10, full tuition ex-

empt, wrk 10 hrs/wk; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Mar 1. Master's: Guid.

BRIDGEPORT, UNIVERSITY OF, Bridgeport, Conn. *Apply for Admis:* Grad Admis Off, Coll Educ; fall term, Aug 1; spring term, Jan 1. *Tuition:* $700. *Assists:* 8, $450, $700 tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Donald W. Kern, Feb 15. Part-time jobs not available. Masters: Guid.

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE, Bryn Mawr, Pa. *Apply for Admis:* fall or spring term, 1st day of registration. *Tuition:* $1,000/acad yr, or $350/each seminar if part-time stu. *Fellows:* 1, $2,050, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; 1st yr grad stus not eligible; apply Dean, Grad Sch (with indication that appl wishes to study in Dept Educ & Child Devel), Mar 1. *Scholars:* 1–2, $1,350, tuition & fees exempt, no wrk; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Mar 1. *Assists:* 3, no stipend, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dean, Grad Sch, Mar 1. Master's & Doctorate: Educ & Child Devel.

BUCKNELL UNIVERSITY, Lewisburg, Pa. *Apply for Admis:* Sec, Comm on Advanced Degrees; fall term, Jun 1; spring term, Nov 1. *Tuition:* $1,300 & general fee. *Fellows & Scholars:* number varies; apply Sec, Comm on Adv Degrees, Mar 1. *Assists:* 1, $500, tuition & fees exempt, wrk 10 hrs/wk; apply Dir, Univ Couns Serv, Mar 1. Master's: Educ (Guid), Psych.

BUFFALO, UNIVERSITY OF, Buffalo, N. Y. *Apply for Admis:* R. H. Rossberg, Sch Educ; or W. L. Barnette, Jr., Dept Psych; fall term, Aug 1; spring term, Feb 1. *Tuition:* $1,000. *Fellows:* 20, $1,500–2,000, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dean, Sch Educ, or Chmn, Dept Psych, May 1. *Scholars:* 2–4, $500, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dean, Sch Educ or Chmn, Dept Psych, May 1. *Assists:* 2–4, $1,200–1,500, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dean, Sch Educ; Chmn, Dept Psych, May 1. Master's: Sch Couns, Rehab Couns, Coll Pers Wrk; Doctorate: Guid, Couns, & Stu Pers Wrk (Educ), Couns Psych (Psych).

CALIFORNIA, UNIVERSITY OF, School of Education, Berkeley. *Apply for Admis:* Dean of Grad Div; fall term, Jul 15; spring term, Dec 15. *Tuition:* $60 incidental fee/sem; nonres $250, + $60 incidental fee/sem. *Fellows, Scholars:* apply Dean, Grad Div, Feb 7. Master's & Doctorate: Stu Pers, Couns Psych.

CALIFORNIA, UNIVERSITY OF, Los Angeles. *Apply for Admis:* Grad Admis; fall term, Aug 1; spring term, Jan 3. *Tuition:* res $136; nonres $636. *Fellows:* number varies, stipend varies, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply A. Garth Sorenson, Assoc Prof Educ, Feb 7. *Scholars:* number varies, stipend varies, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Sorenson, Feb 7. *Assists:* 11, $2,250, tuition & fees not exempt, wrk 20 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Sorenson, Feb 7. Master's & Doctorate: Psych, Edu■.

CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF AMERICA, Washington, D. C. *Apply for Admis:* Robert B. Nordberg, Asst Prof Educ; before term in question. *Tuition:* $800. *Fellows:* number & stipend varies, apply Comm on Fellows and Scholars. *Assists:* apply Rt Rev Msgr F. J. Houlahan, Head, Dept Educ. Master's & Doctorate: Guid.

CENTRAL MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY, Mt. Pleasant. *Apply for Admis:* G. H. Nelson, Dean, Sch Grad Studies; fall term, early Sep; spring term, early Feb. *Tuition:* res $66.50/sem & fees; nonres $133/sem & fees. *Assists:* varies, $750/sem, tuition not exempt, fees exempt, wrk 20 hrs; apply head of each dept. Master's: Guid, Couns.

CENTRAL MISSOURI STATE COLLEGE, Warrensburg. *Apply for Admis:* Reid Hemphill, Dir Grad Div; fall term, Aug 15; winter term, Nov 1; spring term, Feb. 15. *Tuition:* about $150. Assists: 1, $900, out-of-state portion of tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 1/3 time; apply Dr. D. W. Tieszen Dean Instr, Apr. Part-time wrk, very few jobs. Master's: Guid, Couns.

CENTRAL WASHINGTON COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, Ellensburg, Wash. *Apply for Admis:* Roy Ruebel, Dean, Grad Studies; fall term, Sep 1; spring term, Mar 1. *Scholars:* number varies, $50–$450, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Mr. Edward Erickson, Dir Pub Serv, Aug 1 for ensuing acad yr. *Assists:* 5, $100/mo, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 2 hrs/day; apply Dr. Ruebel, Aug 1. Master's: Guid & Couns, Sch Psychol.

CHICAGO, UNIVERSITY OF, Department of Education, Chicago, Ill. *Apply for Admis:* Grad Sch Educ or Dept Educ, Div Soc Sci; Feb 15. *Tuition:* $1,050. *Fellows:* number open, stipend open, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Comm on Fellows & Scholars, Feb 15. *Scholars:* number open, stipend open, tuition and fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Comm on Fellows & Scholars, Feb 15. *Assists:* number open, stipend open, tuition and fees not exempt, wrk varies; apply R. W. Strowig, Feb 15. Master's: Sch Guid Couns; Doctorate: Couns & Guid, Sch Psychol.

CHICAGO TEACHERS COLLEGE, Chicago, Ill. *Apply for Admis:* David Kopel, Dir, Grad Sch; one mo prior to opening of term. *Tuition:* res $1.50 activity fee/cr hr; nonres $25/cr hr. *Scholars:* some available in cases of need, apply Scholarship Comm for further info.

CINCINNATI, UNIVERSITY OF, Cincinnati, Ohio. *Apply for Admis:* Carter V. Good, Dean, Coll Educ & Home Econ; fall term, Sep 15; spring term, Jan 15. *Tuition:* city res $14/cr hr; nonres of city $19/cr hr. *Fellows:* varies, $200, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; 1st yr grad stus not eligible; apply Dr. Good, Apr 15. *Scholars:* varies, no stipend, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Good, Apr 15. *Assists:* varies, $500, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, no wrk; 1st yr grad stus not eligible; apply Dr. Good, Apr 15: Master's & Doctorate: Pers Servs & Couns.

CLAREMONT GRADUATE SCHOOL, Claremont, Calif. *Apply for Admis:* Herbert Gatzke, Dir Stu Pers Servs; fall term, Jun 1; spring term, Dec 1. *Tuition:* $800. *Fellows:* varies, $800–2,000, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Gatzke, Mar 1. *Scholars:* varies, $800–2,000, tuition & fees not exempt, no wrk; apply Dr. Gatzke, Mar 1. *Assists:* 4, $400–1,200, tuition exempt, fees not exempt, wrk 6–18 hrs/wk; apply Dr. Gatzke, Mar 1. Master's: Psych Foundations Educ, Coll Pers, Couns & Guid; Doctorate: prog individually designed emphasizing areas listed under M.A.

CLARK UNIVERSITY, Worcester, Mass. *Apply for Admis:* Vernon Jones, Chmn Dept Educ; fall term, Aug 30; spring term, Jan 15. *Tuition:* $1,050/yr. *Scholars:* 2, 1/2 tuition (and if very superior work possibly other half based on 1st sem experience),

tally retarded young adult. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation Special Project #11, Second Annual Report, April 1956 to March 1957.

2. Cowan, Lawrence, & Morton Goldman. The selection of the mentally deficient for vocational training and effect of this training on vocational success. *J. consult. Psychol.*, 1959, *23*, 1, 78–84.
3. Sarason, Seymour. *Psychological problems in mental deficiency*, 2nd edition. New York: Harper & Bros., 1959.
4. Underwood, B. G., *et al. Elementary statistics.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1954.
5. Work-Training Center, Aid Retarded Children, Inc. Progress report. First Annual Report (for the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare). San Francisco: November 1, 1957 to August 15, 1958.

NEW CAREER FILM PRODUCED IN COOPERATION WITH N.V.G.A.

Cameras and Careers is the first career guidance motion picture to bear the legend "Prepared with the Cooperation of the National Vocational Guidance Association." Produced by the Eastman Kodak Company, the film is designed specifically for group guidance situations and is aimed at 12- to 15-year-old young people. Recognizing that the best way to reach young people thinking about careers is through their guidance counselors, the Eastman Kodak Company went to NVGA for help. NVGA designated a committee of guidance material specialists to serve as consultants on the motion picture. Operating under the supervision of Dr. Richard Rundquist of the University of Kansas Guidance Bureau, the committee members were: Dr. Wilbert J. Dipboye, School of Education, Syracuse University; Dr. John Joyce, Director of Guidance, Niagara Falls Public Schools; and Dr. Harold Munson, School of Education, University of Rochester.

The 28-minute, 16 mm sound, color film points out the hundreds of career opportunities available in the photographic field. Besides the vocations in news or portrait photography, the film shows the many, less well-known industrial, scientific, or business photographic specialties. The film stresses the importance of talking over career plans with the guidance counselor and makes recommendations on how an interested student can prepare for a photographic career through a well-rounded curriculum and through a photographic hobby.

Cameras and Careers may be obtained for individual showing by writing to Audio-Visual Service, Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester 4, New York. There is no charge for this service. The film is also available from the audio-visual libraries of a number of large public or state libraries or school systems and may be obtained on a long-term lease basis from the Eastman Kodak Audio-Visual Service.

Fellowships, Scholarships, and Assistantships for Guidance and Personnel Graduate Training 1961–1962

CARL McDANIELS

This is the fifth in a series of annual articles reporting on the availability of fellowships, scholarships, and assistantships available to students in guidance and personnel graduate training. George D. Changaris, formerly Administrative Assistant at APGA, was the author of the first three articles. The present author has written the last two articles. The first article appeared in the January, 1957, issue of the *Journal* and included a table of requirements for admission to guidance and personnel graduate training. This has not been repeated in later articles.

The data were collected by sending questionnaires to the 271 institutions listed in "Preparation Programs and Course Offerings in School and College Personnel Work 1959–60," published by the U. S. Office of Education and additional listings. Two hundred and sixty-five of the 271 institutions returned questionnaires for a 98 per cent return; 166 offered financial assistance and are included in this report.

The entries for each of the institutions present information on the following points:

1. Name and address of institution.

2. Application for admission to graduate study. The name of the official or person to whom application for admission is made appears first and in some instances is the same person who receives applications for financial assistance. Deadline for applications for admission follows name of official.

3. Tuition. Tuition figures are given for the academic year unless otherwise noted. In some instances, tuition is given for the quarter when applicable or for a semester hour, unit, or credit. Nonresident charges are noted where this information has been provided.

4. Fellowships (abbreviated as "Fellows"). When a definite number is not stated, the reported institution has either omitted this information or stated that a "variable" number were available. Amount of stipend is stated as a definite amount or reported as a range including the lowest and highest amounts. Whether or not tuition and fees are exempt is noted in each entry when the institution so reported. If the graduate student is required to work as a condition of receiving an award, this is stated in hours per week. The official or person to whom an applicant should write for information about an award appears with the deadline date for receiving applications, if supplied. Some schools stated that there was no definite deadline; others did not respond to this question. Awards are available for first-year students unless otherwise stated.

5. Scholarships (abbreviated as "Scholars"). Same as 4 above.

6. Assistantships (abbreviated as "Assists"). Same as 4 above.

7. Part-time work. Only nonavailability of part-time work on campus is noted.

8. Degrees. When furnished, the specific areas of concentration are given for the Master of Arts, Science, or Education ("Master's") and for the Doctor of Education or Doctor of Philosophy ("Doctorate"). If no areas or fields were reported, only the degrees offered are included.

Carl McDaniels is Assistant Director for Professional Relations at the American Personnel and Guidance Association. The author is grateful to Miss Mary Felker for her contribution toward the completion of this article.

Treatment of the Data. As a result of the division of subjects into high and low rankings for learning rate and productivity, four possible categories evolved: (1) high producer-high learner; (2) low producer-high learner, (3) high producer-low learner, and (4) low producer-low learner. Thus, the subjects were classified two ways. One way was high producer versus low producer; the other way was high learner versus low learner. If the two ways of classifying are independent of each other the groups do not differ significantly in their learning rates and productivity. On the other hand, if the classifications are not independent, the two ways of classifying the group differ and a relationship between learning rate and productivity is assumed.

To test the major hypothesis that those subjects who were found to be high learners would be high producers, a contingency table was constructed to test the independence of the two classifications as stated above. The null hypothesis [4], which asserts that there will be no difference in the two ways of classifying, was incorporated. Chi square was computed to measure the discrepancy between the observed and expected frequencies. The chi square value of 3.94 was significant and the null hypothesis was rejected at less than the five per cent level of confidence. A phi coefficient was computed to estimate the relationship between learning rate and productivity. The value of the phi coefficient was found to be 0.39. These data are presented in TABLE 2.

TABLE 2

Contingency Table for Correlation Between Learning Rate and Productivity

	High Producers	*Low Producers*	
Above median learning rate	12 (9.88)	1 (3.12)	13
Below median learning rate	7 (9.12)	5 (2.88)	12
	19	6	25

The figures in parentheses are the expected frequencies. Chi square = 3.94. $P < 0.05$. Phi coefficient = 0.39.

Discussion

While the two ways of classifying the groups differed significantly, the estimated correlation between the two variables (phi coefficient = 0.39) was not correspondingly high. Further examination of the contingency categories (TABLE 2) suggests that the 12 to 1 ratio between high and low producers falling above the median in learning rate is the major factor which supports the hypothesis of significant differences. The ratio of 7 to 5 between high and low producers who fell below the median in learning rate is considerably inconsistent and raises serious question in accepting the face-validity of the statistical findings. The evidence can only suggest that, while the high producers in the training center will be the high learner on worksamples, the low learner will not necessarily be the low producer. Therefore, on the basis of these findings, prediction did not appear independent of other important influences.

The arbitrary dichotomy of subjects in high and low categories for learning rate and productivity appeared to be an important factor in the equivocal findings of the study. The selection of the median as the cut-off point for which to assign subjects to high and low categories neglected the middle or average group which is of equal importance to the normal distribution of such characteristics as learning and productivity. It would seem, then, that an experimental design using a larger sample of subjects and utilizing high, average, and low groupings would shed considerable light on the problem of predicting workshop productivity from the learning ability of the mentally retarded young adult.

The relationship between learning rate and production scores on worksamples appeared to influence the statistical results of the study to an undetermined degree. It was observed during the course of this investigation that some subjects who achieved high production scores (average of three trials) on worksamples performed very close to their maximum on all trials with little improvement from first to third trial. While, on the other hand, some subjects

who achieved poor production scores demonstrated the greatest improvement from first to third trials. Thus, it appeared that the low producer on the worksample had more to learn during the time from first to third trial.

The tabulation of criterion of workshop productivity ratings offers only gross analysis of their significance to the study. While the combined tabulations suggested those criteria which appeared the most frequently in the ratings of the 10 sample subjects, the significance of each to the overall rating of the group is not readily seen. This would require an extensive statistical analysis of the relationship of each criterion to the learning and performances scores on the worksample tasks. The limited scope of this study did not permit such extensive investigation and can only serve to point out the need. Of equal importance, however, is the consistency with which the three work supervisors viewed the subject in relation to the training center population. In general, the three work supervisors judged the subjects quite consistently as a group. Consistency of supervisor's ratings for each individual was not indicated and should be the focus of further investigation.

Conclusion

Observation of the contingency categories (Table 2) suggests that the 12 to 1 ratio between high and low producers falling above the median in learning rate was the prime factor which supported the major hypothesis of significant differences. The 7 to 5 ratio between high and low producers falling below the median in learning rate is considerably inconsistent and raises serious question in accepting the statistical evidence. While the two ways of classifying subjects were not independent, the estimated correlation was never so high as to permit outright prediction. Therefore, prediction on the basis of worksample learning rates for mentally retarded trainees in the Work-Training Center was not independent of important individual factors.

Summary

It was the purpose of the study to investigate the extent to which learning performance within the evaluation setting could predict the productivity of the mentally retarded trainee in the Work-Training Center. Worksample learning rate scores were computed for each subject by subtracting third trial performance score from first trial performance score. In order to determine the relative learning of each subject, a set of achievement scores was tabulated for each worksample learning rate performance. By use of percentile ranks, trainees were assigned a weighted score for each task on a scale from 0 to 4. The median of the group distribution of these scores was computed and established as the cut-off point for which to assign subjects to high and low learning rate categories.

Subjects were also rated independently by three work supervisors in the Work-Training Center who classified each trainee into categories of high and low productivity. The final determination of high and low categorization for each subject was done on a majority basis when total agreement did not occur. Subsequently, five subjects were selected from each of the high and low productivity categories. The names of each were submitted to the three supervisors who was asked to list those characteristics of each trainee which made him a high or low producer. The resulting aggregate of characteristics were tabulated to suggest the criterion underlying the ratings of the group.

As a result of the division of subjects into high and low rankings for learning rate and productivity, four possible categories emerged. A contingency table was constructed to test the independence of the two classifications. The chi square value was statistically significant but the estimated correlationship was not correspondingly high. Prediction on the basis of these findings was not independent of important individual factors.

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1. Association For The Help of Retarded Children. *Specialized rehabilitation training for the men-*

must be sorted in two groups. The score is the total time required to complete the operation.

3. *Assembling:* 25 plastic pistol key chains consisting of six interlocking parts must be assembled. The score is the total time required to complete the assignment.

4. *Racking:* 50 metal barettes must be placed on a wire hanger in a prescribed manner. The score is the total time required to complete six racks of 50 barettes each.

5. *Packaging:* 25 cardboard boxes must be filled with 100 poker chips. There are three colors of chips which must be arranged in a prescribed manner. The score is the total time required to complete the assignment.

6. *Inserting (Clerical):* Addressed printed material must be inserted into an envelope so the address is visible through the window of the envelope. The score is the number completed in one hour.

7. *Stapling (Clerical):* Two-inch squares of plain white paper must be folded in half and stapled over the edge of small cardboard strips (simulating a labeling process). The score is the number completed in one hour.

These worksamples were chosen for this study out of a battery of 10 standardized tasks for two reasons: (1) they yielded a numerical score for each trial which permits quantification of the learning rate variable, and (2) they proved to be tasks in which all subjects were capable of achieving a scorable performance.

Workshop Productivity Rating Form. The forced-choice technique was employed in the methodology of this study. It was felt that any rating scale or criteria selected by the investigator would result in an aggregate of characteristics which would not necessarily be indicative of high or low productivity of the group in the workshop but, in essence, those criteria which would be indicative of high or low productivity to the investigator. With this in mind, it was determined that each work supervisor would be required to rate the subject individually into a high-productivity or low-productivity category. A rating form was thus produced and distributed to the work supervisory staff. Following this forced choice of extreme categories was the requirement to list the characteristics which, in the opinion of each work supervisor, made that individual a high or low producer. In this way, the subjective judgment of the investigator was avoided.

Results

Worksample Learning Rates. Learning rate scores were computed for the subjects by subtracting third trial performance scores from first trial performance scores of all the worksamples with the exception of Stapling and Inserting. The procedure for computing learning rates for these tasks was reversed since they required the completion of a number of units within a prescribed amount of time. Thus, trial one performance score minus trial three performance score determined the learning rate.

In order to determine the relative learning of each trainee on the seven worksamples, a set of achievement scores was tabulated. By the use of percentile ranks, trainees were assigned a weighted score for each task on a scale of from 0 to 4. These scores were tabulated for each of the seven worksamples and a total weighted score was computed. The possible range of total scores was from a low of zero, indicating a consistently poor learning performance on the seven tasks, to a high score of 28, indicating consistently superior learning performance.

The range of the subsequent distribution of achievement scores, computed from the total of seven learning rate achievement scores for each individual, was from 6 to 24 with the mean falling at 14.1. The median of the distribution was 13.5 and is the cutoff point which was selected to group subjects into high and low categories for the learning rate variable. Twelve subjects fell into the low category and the remaining 13 subjects composed the high category for learning rates.

Ratings of Productivity. Subjects were rated independently by three work supervi-

sors in the Work-Training Center who classified each trainee into categories of high and low productivity. The final determination of high and low groupings for productivity was done on a majority basis. Where total agreement was not reached by the independent ratings of the supervisors, subjects were placed into one or the other category when agreement of two of the three supervisors was evidenced. Thus, an individual trainee who received two high ratings and one low rating was assigned to the high productivity category. Likewise, the trainee who received two low ratings and one high rating was assigned to the low productivity category. The possibility of a trainee receiving ratings in each of the high, low, and "cannot say" choices did not occur since each subject had been under observation by the work supervisory staff for a considerable period of time. Only three subjects obtained a rating in the "cannot say" column by an individual supervisor because of irregular attendance or some other factor which tended to limit the raters' ability to judge him objectively.

Nineteen subjects were assigned to the final high productivity category. Twelve of these 19 subjects were assigned on the basis of total agreement between the three supervisors, while the remaining seven subjects received the two out of three majority ratings. Six subjects were assigned to the final low productivity category. Five of these six subjects were assigned on the basis of total agreement, while the remaining subject received the majority ratings for the low productivity category.

Relative agreement between supervisors was estimated on a percentage basis. Supervisors I and II agreed on 22 out of the possible 25 ratings for an estimated 88 per cent agreement. Supervisors I and III agreed on 18 of 25 ratings and demonstrated 72 per cent agreement. Supervisors II and III showed 76 per cent agreement with 19 similar ratings out of 25 chances.

Rating Criteria. Five subjects were selected at random from each of the high and low productivity categories. The names of the subjects were submitted to the work supervisors who independently listed the criteria underlying their ratings for each trainee. The selected criteria were tabulated in order to suggest those criteria which characterized the supervisors' ratings. Thus, two sets of rating criteria emerged. One set of characteristics represented rating criteria for the high productive sample and the other set characterized the criteria for the low productive sample.

TABLE 1

Tabulation of Combined Frequencies of High and Low Criterion

Criterion	*High*	*Low*	*Total*
Attention span	8	8	16
Coordination	9	4	13
Stability	7	3	10
Emotional	0	9	9
Follow directions	7	1	8
Motivation	5	2	7
Cooperation	5	2	7
Speed	3	4	7
Endurance	5	0	5
Intelligence level	5	0	5
Carel[redacted]	0	4	4
Adjustment to new task	2	1	3
Organization	2	1	3
Discrimination	3	0	3
Comprehension of instruction	0	3	3
Physical factors	0	3	3

TABLE 1 combines the frequencies of those criterion from both high and low ratings which appeared to be concerned with the presence or lack of similar characteristics. Thus attention span from the high productivity and short attention span from the low productivity criterion are considered to be concerned with a unitary trait. Therefore, the frequencies from both tables are combined to produce the total frequency of occurrence for both sample groups. On the other hand, such characteristics as: quiet, cannot take correction, needs close supervision and encouragement, and interest did not occur consistently in the ratings of both sample groups and appeared to play a negligible role. These data were excluded from the combined frequencies of high and low criterion shown in TABLE 1.

Worksample Learning Rates of the Mentally Retarded Trainee as Indicators of Production in a Work-Training Center

PHILIP G. LADAS

THE PROBLEMS of the mentally retarded young adult are many. Of great concern at the present time is the prevocational evaluation of the mentally retarded individual in the vocational rehabilitation process. One of the major problems of the evaluator is the development of specific measures and instruments which would enable him to predict, with maximum reliability and validity, the degree of success that may be expected in the vocational rehabilitation of the mentally retarded young adult. The present study examines the degree to which the production of the trainee in a work-training center can be predicted from his or her learning performance in the prevocational evaluation unit.

The greater degree of division of labor in the manufacturing processes employed in this country has lessened the need for specific job training. Many of the tasks required of the unskilled and semi-skilled occupations can be learned on the job. It is, then, important to the rehabilitation team and the handicapped individual to ascertain to the maximum his assets and liabilities as they may relate to his potential for adapting to a job. It is here that the prevocational evaluator must apply a more operational concept to his assessment of the functioning and employment potentials of the mentally retarded young adult.

The concepts of intelligence and IQ have of necessity undergone change. The IQ test is an important tool in the psychology as well as in the counseling and education of the mentally retarded. Vocational counseling has been noticeably slow in using a more functional approach to the concept of intelligence [*2*]. Using IQ scores as a predictive device for vocational success has not been supported by evidence. To accept a complete predictive relationship is to overlook the importance of non-intellective individual differences in the assessment, training, counseling, and placement of the mentally retarded young adult. It cannot be assumed that of any two individuals with different IQ's, the one with the higher IQ score will enjoy more success on the job. Sarason [*3*] elucidates this point in stating that:

> For many years after the introduction of the 1916 Binet and other standard tests, the aim of the psychological examination was to emerge with a number—the ubiquitous IQ. If two individuals obtained the same quotient or mental age, they were considered to have the same degree of intelligence, although their everyday functioning and behavioral patterns conveyed differences between them which overshadowed any similar test rating. The assumptions of similar functioning for individuals with similar test scores has resulted in many surprises as well as in practical difficulties [*3, p. 59*].

One of the most serious responsibilities of the prevocational evaluator is the recommendation of possible vocational training areas for the mentally retarded trainee. Evaluation providing tryout experience in a variety of tasks is one way of exploring the differential abilities of the mentally retarded young adult and laying the groundwork for vocational guidance [*1*]. Counseling, placement, and follow-up are built upon the study of occupations as well as upon the intelligence quotient, interest and aptitude patterns, and other standardized measures. Therefore, the exploration of

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differential abilities by means other than the standardized techniques is a step in the direction of a more functional approach to assessment of the work potential of the mentally subnormal employment prospect. Moreover, the refinement of worksamples and other prevocational evaluation techniques are of more general value.

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which learning performance within the evaluation setting can predict the productivity of the mentally retarded trainee in a work-training center by (1) assessment of worksample learning rates during the prevocational evaluation period, (2) evaluation of the workshop productivity of the individual by the work supervisory staff, and (3) testing the hypothesis that the ability of the mentally retarded trainee to learn or adapt to the operational task required by worksamples will provide a useful index of productivity in the work-training center.

Procedure

The subjects who participated in this investigation were trainees enrolled in the Work-Training Center of the San Francisco Aid Retarded Children, Incorporated. The data were gathered during the regular participation of each subject in the Work-Training Center in which work evaluation, training, supervision, counseling, and placement are component services [5].

Subjects were evaluated individually in sessions which lasted from two to three weeks depending on the ability, stamina, and attendance of the individual. Before beginning the evaluation session the examiner attempted to establish rapport and orient the subject to the setting and the nature of the worksample tasks. During this time each subject was given the opportunity to ask questions and acquaint himself or herself with the ensuing process.

Work training and supervision are proffered by the work supervisory staff. Each subject participated daily in the production program which is carried on in an area apart from the evaluation unit. Included in the production program are such activities as: assembling, collating, packaging, sorting, racking, salvage, and various other industrial operations brought in on a subcontract basis.

Close supervision is maintained daily with each subject who is assigned to one of three work groups. Observation and evaluation of work productivity, habits, attitudes, and skills are made routinely and individual problems handled directly by the work supervisor. It is felt by the investigator that assessment of the productivity of each subject by the work supervisory staff would be of value on the basis of this consistent and intensive relationship over a considerable period of time. This period was in no case less than one month.

Group Studied

The subjects who took part in this study were 25 trainees who were participating in the daily program of the Work-Training Center. Of the 25 subjects, 16 were males and 9 were females. The age range was from 18 years to 45 years with a mean age of 20. The IQ's as estimated by standardized intelligence tests, ranged from 48 to 82 with the mean IQ score of 60. The length of attendance in the center for the group ranged from three months to a maximum of seven years and seven months.

Worksamples Employed. A battery of seven standardized tasks were employed in this study. Each job consisted of a standard number of units which the trainee completed in each of three trails. Detailed records were kept of the time taken to complete the task at successive sessions. An average two-day interval was arranged between trials of the same task. The seven evaluation devices are actually worksamples that were selected because they seemed to tap a variety of aptitudes, abilities, and skills usually required in simple industrial operations, with the exception of two tasks which required simple clerical operations: These worksamples included:

1. *Folding:* 50 plastic tablecloth covers must be folded in a prescribed manner and inserted into a band. The score is the total time required to complete the assignment.
2. *Sorting:* Two pounds of screws similar in color and bore, but different in length,

agreement between interest and aptitude scores will show more favorable scores on a psychological inventory than will high school boys with marked interest-aptitude discrepancy.

Discrepancy scores (D) were computed for 684 high school freshman and junior males by finding the difference (d) between standard scores on matched scales of the Kuder Vocational Preference Record and the Differential Aptitude Tests using the formula $D = \sqrt{\Sigma d^2}$. Eight per cent of students with lowest and eight per cent with highest D values constituted the criterion groups: Low Discrepancy Interest-Aptitude (LDIA) and High Discrepancy Interest-Aptitude (HDIA). The California Psychological Inventory (CPI) was administered. The significance of the differences between mean CPI profile elevation score (PES), mean adjustment index score (AIS, *i.e.,* average rating of adjustment by inspection of CPI profiles), and individual CPI scale scores for the criterion groups were determined by grade level using t tests.

The results were as follows: (1) The 11th grade LDIA group indicated significantly more favorable scores than the 11th grade HDIA group on both criteria of total adjustment, PES ($P < 0.05$) and AIS ($P < 0.01$). The 9th grade LDIA group scored somewhat higher than the 9th grade HDIA group on these criteria, but the differences were not statistically significant. (2) Fourteen of the 17 differences in CPI mean scores between 11th grade LDIA and HDIA groups were in the direction hypothesized. Seven of these differences were statistically significant. (3) Ten of the 17 differences in CPI mean scores between 9th grade LDIA and HDIA groups were in the direction hypothesized with five of these differences statistically significant. (4) Both the 9th and 11th grade LDIA subjects demonstrated significantly more favorable scores than the respective HDIA subjects on CPI scales Wb, Cm, and Ie which measure respectively extent of self-doubt, extent of internal conflicts, and extent of personal efficiency. (5) Eleventh grade LDIA subjects showed significantly more favorable scores on CPI scales measuring social maturity, self-control, and tolerance than did 11th grade HDIA subjects. These significant differences were not found for the 9th grade criterion groups. (6) Neither 11th grade nor 9th grade criterion groups indicated significantly different mean scores on CPI scales measuring social skills.

Within the limitations of size and composition of the sample the following tentative conclusions were drawn from the findings: (1) The hypothesis was supported for 11th grade subjects on total adjustment whether using a CPI elevation score (PES) or a composite of judges' ratings of CPI profiles (AIS). The hypothesis was not substantiated on 9th grade subjects on these criteria. (2) The hypothesis was substantiated at both grade levels on CPI scales measuring personal adequacy and personal security. (3) The hypothesis was supported at the 11th grade level by scores on CPI scales measuring social maturity. Ninth graders were not differentiated by social maturity scores. Certain inferences were made from the findings. Interests and aptitudes probably are personality characteristics whose interrelationship affects adjustment. This interaction shows some relationship to developmental processes. Since the extent and intensity of maladjustment tends to increase from the 9th to the 11th grade for individuals with marked interest-aptitude discrepancies, counselors should attempt to help these individuals as early as possible.

A more comprehensive study with a larger sample is believed warranted and is presently being processed.

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COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION INSTITUTE SCHEDULED FOR JUNE, 1961

An Institute on College and University Administration will be held at the University of Michigan, June 26–30, 1961. The program will focus upon principles and methods of organization and administration, including discussion of the decision-making process, human relations, and basic skills of administration. The staff will include the faculty of the center for the Study of Higher Education and other resource persons.

The Institute, in its seventh year of operation, is intended for presidents, deans, business officers, etc.; the membership is limited to 60 persons. Information may be secured from the director, Algo D. Henderson, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

integrated person. In particular, Super's conjecture that compromise and synthesis are major characteristics of interest development seems appropriate [*18*].

Although not hypothesized, two developmental trends appear evident from the findings. First, the degree of interest-aptitude congruency seemed more crucial to 11th graders than to 9th graders in total adjustment. Second, immaturity in the 9th

TABLE 3

Comparisons of Mean Scores on CPI Scales for 9th and for 11th Grade Extreme Groups

		9th Grade				11th Grade			
Scale	*Group*	*M*	*SD*	*t Ratio*	*Level of Sig.**	*M*	*SD*	*t Ratio*	*Level of Sig.**
Class I—Measures of Poise, Ascendance and Self-Assurance									
1. Do	LDIA	41.9	9.7	−1.13		46.6	10.3	0.55	
	HDIA	45.3	11.2			44.7	13.4		
2. Cs	LDIA	38.4	7.9	−0.52		42.3	9.7	−0.25	
	HDIA	39.7	9.8			43.1	12.2		
3. Sy	LDIA	46.1	9.8	−0.31		48.8	9.9	1.15	
	HDIA	46.9	9.8			45.0	13.0		
4. Sp	LDIA	52.4	10.7	1.33		53.3	8.7		
	HDIA	48.4	10.9			54.6	13.1	−0.42	
5. Sa	LDIA	48.6	8.3	−1.00		54.1	8.6		
	HDIA	51.3	10.6			52.4	12.3	0.57	
6. Wb	LDIA	41.7	11.9			43.6	10.6		
	HDIA	34.7	15.2	1.79	0.05	32.4	12.2	3.39	<0.01
Class II—Measures of Socialization, Maturity and Responsibility									
7. Re	LDIA	37.4	12.9			40.9	9.5	0.77	
	HDIA	38.5	14.1	−0.29		38.6	9.4		
8. So	LDIA	50.4	11.8	1.27		48.8	10.5	2.13	<0.05
	HDIA	45.7	13.9			42.4	10.7		
9. Sc	LDIA	38.5	11.7	−0.07		40.3	8.9		
	HDIA	38.7	10.5			32.6	8.6	2.66	<0.01
10. To	LDIA	40.9	9.5	0.91		43.9	9.8		
	HDIA	38.0	12.6			36.5	9.4	2.46	0.01
11. Gi	LDIA	35.6	9.5			38.9	7.9	1.25	
	HDIA	41.1	9.4	−2.11	<0.05	35.4	11.6		
12. Cm	LDIA	53.5	10.2			56.3	6.2	3.50	<0.01
	HDIA	43.7	17.5	2.41	0.01	47.5	11.2		
Class III—Measures of Achievement Potential and Intellectual Efficiency									
13. Ac	LDIA	38.1	12.9	0.69		41.0	8.3	2.39	0.01
	HDIA	35.7	12.6			34.8	8.8		
14. Ai	LDIA	43.3	7.1	1.50		46.7	7.5	1.44	
	HDIA	39.4	10.4			43.4	7.6		
15. Ie	LDIA	41.5	12.7	1.69	0.05	46.2	8.6	2.68	<0.01
	HDIA	34.9	14.9			37.9	13.0		
Class IV—Measures of Intellectual and Interest Modes									
16. Py	LDIA	45.0	7.1	0.20		48.9	8.9	0.89	
	HDIA	44.5	10.0			46.5	8.9		
17. Fx	LDIA	53.8	9.9	2.60	<0.01	51.8	9.0		
	HDIA	48.6	7.5			54.8	11.9	−1.00	

* A one-tailed test was used since prediction was directional.

grade discrepant group tended toward overconformity; whereas, immaturity in 11th grade discrepant members was indicated by more defensive, aggressive inclinations toward others. One could speculate that the more imminent vocational decisions of 11th graders made the degree of aptitude-interest congruency more vital to them than to 9th graders. Thus, 11th graders, with high discrepancy scores, faced with decisions which were difficult or impossible to make, conceivably could react defensively to real or imagined pressure from others. Ninth graders with discrepant patterns, faced with less definitive planning, could more easily go along with pressure of others even if it meant overconforming to please individuals in their environment. In addition, it is probable that some 11th graders had persisted in an unsuitable interest-aptitude pattern for a longer time than had 9th graders thereby increasing the extent and probability of maladjustment.

It could be inferred from these developmental trends that Carter [*6*] is justified in his supposition that in some cases interest-aptitude discrepancies may be temporary and transitional with serious maladjustment occurring only if the individuals persist in the pattern for prolonged periods. More generally, these developmental aspects are somewhat in accord with the most recently evolved vocational theories of Ginzberg [*10*], Carter [*7*], Super [*18*] and Tyler [*21*] in which occupational choice is considered a developmental process rather than a specific event in an individual's life.

Two other areas need mentioning. The failure of the criterion groups at both grade levels to be differentiated by social skills scores is probably because social activities are being measured by these scales rather than inner controls of cognitive factors. Darley [*9*] found social traits were related to areas of vocational interest. Since these social skills probably are more affected by area of interests rather than by interest-aptitude discrepancy, differences would not be expected in this study. Also, the significant differentiation of the criterion groups on areas related to self-understanding may be suggestive with respect to Bordin [*5*] that perhaps accuracy of self-perceptions should be included along with accuracy of perceptions of occupational stereotypes in evaluating responses to interest inventories.

Aside from these theoretical applications, the clinical hunches of some experienced counselors about the importance of the relationship of interests and aptitudes to adjustment have been substantiated somewhat by the findings.

This investigation was essentially exploratory. Since the results appear to warrant it, a larger, more comprehensive study is now in process using larger n's and including a linear correlation between discrepancy scores and adjustment scores for the total sample. If the results of the exploratory investigation are confirmed, factors which may affect the extent of interest-aptitude congruence, such as identification processes, socio-economic status, and the like will be studied next. Certainly the apparent complex interrelationship of interest and aptitudes has not minimized the importance of other variables which have been investigated in interest development. Rather, it has seemed to heighten the need for more research in these other areas.

It is hoped the results of this initial study will encourage other investigators to test the appropriateness and effectiveness of this type of design in developing studies intended to lead us toward a more cohesive vocational theory.

Summary

The purpose of this exploratory study was to investigate the relationship between the coincidence of a person's interests and aptitudes to his adjustment. A review of the theoretical formulations of interest phenomena showed that although some theorists emphasized aptitudes as a major factor in interest development, and others postulated personality as the major determinant, an assumption of a relationship of an individual's interests and aptitudes to his adjustment was underlying all major theories. Since this assumption never had been conceptualized clearly nor experimentally verified, the following hypothesis was developed and tested: High school boys with marked

TABLE 1

Comparisons of the Mean PES for 9th and for 11th Grade Extreme Groups

Grade	Group	N	Mean	SD	t Ratios	Level of Sig.*
9th	LDIA	21	42.9	7.4	0.38	
	HDIA	34	42.1	7.8		
11th	LDIA	30	46.5	4.5	2.38	<0.05
	HDIA	17	42.7	6.6		

* A one-tailed test was used since prediction was directional.

TABLE 2

Comparisons of Mean AIS for 9th and for 11th Grade Extreme Groups

Grade	Group	N	M	SD	t Ratios	Level of Sig.*
9th	LDIA	21	3.3	1.3	0.56	
	HDIA	34	3.1	1.4		
11th	LDIA	30	3.9	1.2	2.97	<0.01
	HDIA	17	2.8	1.3		

* A one-tailed test was used since prediction was directional.

scores were higher for the LDIA group than for the HDIA group. Seven differences between means were significant in the direction hypothesized. Six of these differences were significant at the 0.01 level or higher: Wb (sense of well being), Sc (self-control), To (tolerance), Cm (communality), Ac (achievement via conformance), and Ie (intellectual efficiency); while one of these differences, So (socialization), was significant at the 0.05 level. Differences in means on three CPI scales, Cs (capacity for status), Sp (social presence), and Fx (flexibility), were in the opposite direction to that of the hypothesis but these differences were not significant.

Three pertinent factors should be noted from TABLE 3. First, both 9th and 11th grade subjects scored significantly higher than their respective HDIA subjects on CPI scales Wb (sense of well being), Cm (communality), and Ie (intellectual efficiency). Second, 11th grade LDIA subjects scored significantly higher than 11th grade HDIA subjects on CPI scales measuring social maturity and self-control. This difference was not so for the 9th grades. Third, the extreme groups at both grade levels were not differentiated by scores on scales measuring social skills: Do (dominance), Cs (capacity for status), Sy (sociability), Sp (social presence), and Sa (self acceptance).

Discussion

Generalizations and conclusions inferred from the data are limited to middle class high school males with either marked interest-aptitude agreement or discrepancy. The small size of the n's in each criterion group is another limiting factor of this exploratory study. Pending a similar investigation with a much larger sample, the conclusions must be considered as tentative.

In this study, regardless of grade level, the congruent groups could be described as tending to be realistic, resourceful, and productive with indications of good judgment, a sense of well being, and self-understanding. In comparison, discrepant groups tended toward more constricted thought, inefficient use of resources, self-doubt, and unrealism.[2]

Because of these tendencies, it can be conjectured that individuals with congruent patterns might be more likely to discover and capitalize on advantageous interest-aptitude combinations than would individuals with discrepant configurations. Also, persons with congruent patterns might be likely to reject an activity highly prized in their environment if they lacked the necessary efficiency; whereas, less resourceful individuals with discrepant patterns might fail to recognize these interest-aptitude discrepancies, or fearful of environmental disapproval, might persist in these unwise interest-aptitude combinations.

These indications seem to be in accord with Carter's [6] and Super's [18, 19] contentions that interest-aptitude consistencies lead to a channeling of personal resources; whereas, inconsistencies may lead to a poorly

[2] Descriptive words and phrases used in this section are based upon those used in the CPI manual as representative of traits measured by each scale [11].

from the average IQ score of 104.6 for the district population from which the sample was drawn.

Collecting the Data: The KPR and DAT scores were taken from the student's cumulative folders and by use of these scores the LDIA and HDIA groups were determined by the procedure described above. The CPI was then administered to the subjects at their respective schools.

Definition of the Criteria of Adjustment: Two separate criteria of adjustment were selected; a CPI profile elevation score (PES), and a CPI adjustment index score (AIS). In addition, scores on the individual CPI scales were analyzed.

1. *Profile Elevation Score (PES).* The profile elevation score is the mean of the standard scores on 17 scales of the CPI for a given person. Fe (femininity) was not used at the recommendation of the author of the test, because, unlike all other scales, 50 is the optimal score.

2. *Adjustment Index Score (AIS).* Two judges expert in interpreting the CPI made independent ratings of each individual's CPI profile on a seven point adjustment scale, with *4* being the average adjustment, *1* being very inferior adjustment, and 7 being very superior adjustment. The interjudge reliability was found to be 0.88. The two ratings then were averaged to obtain an adjustment index score.[1]

The Tests of the Hypothesis: The original intention of the study was to compare the mean scores of the combined 9th and 11th grade HDIA groups to mean scores of combined 9th and 11th grade LDIA groups. However, it was decided, instead, that it would be more appropriate to analyze the scores of the extreme LDIA and HDIA groups by grade level. This change of procedure was based upon the following reasoning: the standard scores for matched scales which were used to derive discrepancy scores were computed separately for each grade level. More importantly, the mean KPR scores for the 9th grade were almost identical to the mean KPR scores for the 11th grade; whereas, the mean DAT scores for the 9th grade were considerably lower than the mean DAT scores for the 11th grade.

Using standard scores, means were computed for the first criterion of adjustment (PES) for each of the 9th and 11th grade LDIA and HDIA groups. In addition, a mean score for each of the 17 CPI scales was obtained for the four criterion groups. For the second criterion of adjustment (AIS) the judges' ratings were averaged giving an adjustment index score for each person. A mean adjustment score was computed for each of the 9th and 11th grade LDIA and HDIA subjects. The significance of the differences between PES, AIS, and individual CPI scale mean scores of the criterion groups by grade level were determined by *t* tests.

Results

PES and AIS for 9th and for 11th Grade Extreme Groups. In Table 1 and Table 2, it can be seen that the criterion groups at the 11th grade level were differentiated significantly by AIS <0.01 and PES <0.05 whereas the 9th grade criterion groups were not.

Individual CPI Scales for 9th and for 11th Grade Extreme Groups. Ninth Grade: Findings concerning the difference between the mean scores on the CPI scales for 9th grade extreme groups are found in Table 3. Ten of the 17 differences between means were in the hypothesized direction. Five differences between means were significant at the 0.05 level or higher. Four of these differences, Wb (sense of well being), Cm (communality), Ie (Intellectual efficiency), and Fx (flexibility) were significant and were in the direction of the hypothesis. The difference in mean scores on the Gi (good impression) scale was significant but was in the opposite direction to that of the hypothesis.

Eleventh Grade: In referring to Table 3, it can be seen that 14 of the 17 CPI mean

[1] The judges, the author of the CPI and an assistant at the Institute of Personality Assessment at the University of California, Berkeley, were unaware of whether the individuals being rated were in the low or high discrepancy group, but they did know that extreme groups existed.

The Relationship of Discrepancies between Interest and Aptitude Scores to Other Selected Personality Variables

FRANK A. NUGENT

THE PURPOSE of this exploratory study was to investigate the relationship between the coincidence of a person's vocational interests and aptitudes and certain aspects of his adjustment.

A review of the theoretical formulations of interest phenomena showed that most major interest theories can be classified into either of two sets of dichotomies: the first is a personality-aptitude dichotomy [*9, 17*]: the second, heredity-environment [*5*]. Because of these classifications, research usually has been based on the premise that either aptitude or personality is the major determinant of vocational interest, or it has been designed on the basis that either heredity or environment plays the major role in interest development.

In studies developed on the basis of these dichotomous approaches, inconclusive and inconsistent findings have resulted so that no cohesive interest theory has emerged. In the reviews [*9, 16, 17*] and in the studies [*1, 3, 4, 12, 13, 15*] no consistent correlations were found between interest and aptitude scores. Similarly, no conclusive evidence has been established that adjustment, defined in terms of feelings of adequacy, is affected by area of interest [*2, 20*]. In general, although some investigators have found some relationship between values and interests, these results have not been consistent [*9*]. Finally, in none of these situations has heredity or environment appeared to be the major determinant of interest development.

While analyzing the theoretical formulations for possible reasons for these inconsistencies, it became evident that although differences in theory could not be ignored, a basic assumption underlying all major interest theories was perhaps of more significance. More specifically, this premise is: the interaction of an individual's interests and aptitudes has an effect on his adjustment [*14*]. Since this assumption had not been conceptualized clearly nor experimentally verified, a study seemed needed. Because of the apparent interplay of personality variables, it was decided that a more productive design than any used in either dichotomous approach would be one in which interests and aptitudes are both recognized as personality variables whose interaction has some effect on adjustment. This interaction is examined in this study by relating a measure of interest aptitude congruency to adjustment indices.

Aside from the theoretical considerations, this design structure is compatible with the empirical observations of many counselors who have been operating on this assumption of a relationship of aptitude and interest to adjustment for many years. They have been trained to synthesize test results when helping counselees interpret their various test scores. In fact, many experienced counselors feel that interest aptitude consistency is a favorable indication of adjustment while a discrepancy between these factors, they surmise, is liable to be an indi-

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This article is based on the author's doctoral dissertation completed under the sponsorship of Dr. Lawrence Stewart, University of California, Berkeley. The investigator wishes to express his appreciation to Dr. Stewart for his help in the development and completion of this inquiry. Also, appreciation is extended to Professors Harrison Gough, Fred Tyler, and Lloyd Morrissett, Jr., for their contributions to the project.

cation of problems. Perhaps the results of this study will help counselors to evaluate their clinical hunches.

Hypothesis: To test this assumption of interaction, the following hypothesis was formulated: High school boys with marked agreement between interests and aptitudes will show more favorable scores on a psychological inventory than will high school boys with marked discrepancy between interests and aptitudes.

Method

Two groups of high school males selected on the basis of marked agreement or discrepancy between vocational interest and aptitude scores were administered a personality inventory to determine whether significant differences in personality adjustment would be found between the two groups.

Instruments: Three instruments were used: the Kuder Vocational Preference Record (KPR) to measure vocational interest; the Differential Aptitude Tests (DAT) to obtain aptitude scores; and the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) to indicate personality adjustment. On the KPR and DAT, only matched scales, those with comparable scales on both instruments, were used. These scales were:

Kuder Clerical—DAT Clerical
Kuder Mechanical—DAT Mechanical
Kuder Computational—DAT Numerical

The CPI, a relatively new instrument in personality measurement, is standardized on a normal population. Based upon the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, 18 scales are provided measuring socially desirable behavioral tendencies rather than pathological tendencies. The scales are arranged under the following categories: (a) Poise, Ascendancy, and Self-Assurance (includes measures of Dominance, Capacity for Status, Sociability, Social Presence, Self-Acceptance, Sense of Well Being); (b) Socialization, Maturity, and Responsibility Acceptance, Sense of Well Being); (b) Socialization, Self-Control, Tolerance, Good Impression, Communality); (c) Achievement Potential and Intellectual Efficiency (includes measures of Achievement via Conformance, Achievement via Independence, and Intellectual Efficiency); (d) Intellectual and Interest Modes (includes Psychological-Mindedness, Flexibility, Femininity). Results are given in standard scores with more favorable adjustment indicated by higher scores.

Sample: The total sample consisted of 684 high school freshman and junior males enrolled in three high schools in a unified district in the San Francisco Bay Area. Female students were excluded from the study because women's interests have been found to be generally less channelized or less career-oriented than those of men [*16*].

Selection of Subjects (Interest-Aptitude Discrepancy Groups): For each grade level, all raw scores on matched scales of the KPR and DAT were converted to standard scores. Then by use of Cronbach's formula [*8*], $D = \sqrt{\Sigma d^2}$, where d is the difference between standard scores on a pair of matched scales, an interest-aptitude discrepancy score (D) was computed for each individual by grade level. Next, extreme groups consisting of approximately eight per cent of students with the lowest and eight per cent of students with the highest D values were selected from the frequency distribution of D. The final sample consisted of 51 students with high discrepancy scores and 51 students with low discrepancy scores. By grade level, there were 34 students with high discrepancy and 21 with low discrepancy scores in the 9th grade, while the number of students with high and low discrepancy scores in the 11th grade were 17 and 30 respectively.

Subjects with small discrepancy scores constituted the Low Discrepancy Interest-Aptitude (LDIA) groups. Those students with high discrepancy scores were the High Discrepancy Interest-Aptitude (HDIA) groups.

IQ scores were obtained for the individuals in the four groups from their California Mental Maturity scores. The LDIA groups did not differ significantly from their respective HDIA groups in mean IQ scores. The average IQ score for each extreme group at both grade levels did not differ significantly

be given two scholastic aptitude tests, but a pupil with high grades and low IQ might; not all pupils would be given a tweezer dexterity test but a boy considering a pre-dental program might.

The fifth and final phase of the basic minimum counseling program is the *final interview.* In many cases, the pupil's parents are invited to such a final session. In this session, every effort is made to get the pupil to participate actively—to get him to state what this or that bit of evidence seems to imply, not just to sit and listen while he is told. Counselor-interns frequently find of value some modification of "Hamrin's Square" [*1*]. A small square is drawn on a blank sheet of paper and its four sides are labelled *abilities, interests, personality,* and *opportunities.* Counselor and pupil together sit down to "take a look at the pupil from at least these four sides." More often than not the pupil himself wields the pencil as various bits of information are recalled and recorded in the appropriate area on the sheet. It is pointed out that the test information makes up but a small part of the total "area" of any of the four sides. Once the "picture" has been completed, pupil and counselor and parent (who hitherto has been mainly an observer) together examine the implications.

Problems Encountered

Both interns and counselees seem to find valuable security from this basic minimum counseling program. It provides a comfortable and worthwhile structure and at the same time in no way precludes ready digression into other areas of pressing concern to the pupil. Almost certainly the counselor-intern with a case load of five or six subjects will encounter all or almost all of the following areas: routine program planning, vocational and educational guidance, unrealistic goals, emotional disturbances, social maladjustment, study skill problems, family or home difficulties, moral and ethical problems, resistance to discipline, and delinquency.

In one instance during the summer of 1955, while one counselor-intern was presenting to the group for staffing the case of a girl in real danger of moving toward seriously delinquent behavior, the class session was dramatically interrupted by the appearance of the police at the classroom door. The girl under discussion at that very moment had disappeared from home the night before and the police had come to consult the counselor-intern in search of possible clues to her whereabouts. This example demonstrates that the counseling experiences provided are realistic and living rather than artificial and academic.

Through group discussions, every effort is made to help the interns become sensitized to the importance of making appropriate referrals in cases involving difficulties which appear to require services of more highly specialized agencies. The intern can at all times call upon the combined judgment of the group, the college instructor, and the school administration in reaching this decision.

Instructional Procedures

In effect, the internship is a blend of the usual internship, workshop, classroom, and case conference procedures. Each counselor-intern takes full responsibility for the counseling of each pupil assigned to him, yet remains under the supervision of the college staff member in charge of the course and is aided by his fellow interns. A workshop well stocked with testing supplies and vocational information materials where interns work and learn together is kept continuously available. Brief informal lectures and demonstrations of testing and counseling procedures are presented to the group from time to time by the instructor and by outside guests; films, tape recordings, and other devices are utilized. Each intern presents for "staffing" at least one and probably two or three of his cases (minimum case load would ordinarily be five) before a case conference consisting of the other interns, the instructor, and various qualified outsiders when available. In many ways, the staffing of cases is the heart of the instructional program.

Grading Procedures

No formal examinations or written re-

ports are required since no conventional grades are given. Students either receive or fail to receive credit on the basis of their overall participation in the various aspects of the total program. The intimate, personal relationship between college instructor and counselor-interns provides the former with ample opportunity for knowing at all times whether or not any intern's work is satisfactory. Ordinarily all students allowed to complete the course will be eligible to receive credit since normal procedure would be to request withdrawal from the course by any intern whose work was less than satisfactory. Such an occasion can be expected to arise only very rarely in view of careful pre-registration screening procedures set up by the committee on guidance studies prior to granting permission to enroll in the program.

Evaluation

To date, only a few systematic efforts at evaluation have been made. In one case, the Girls' Vice-Principal of one of the cooperating high schools was asked by the district office to make an evaluation of the program. When she asked each of the 45 students who had participated if they would give up their Saturday mornings for the counseling if given the opportunity again, 44 gave an unqualified "Yes" while one answered "I'm not sure." She reported phone calls or visits to her office from 10 parents who wished to express their approval of the program.

On several occasions pupils counseled have been asked to return an anonymous questionnaire. Their replies have each time included a 100 per cent "yes" response to the question "Should the program be continued another year?" Their replies have also helped to pinpoint the area of vocational information as the most persistent weak point. This in turn has led to a reorganization of the college course most directly concerned with this area.

One other aspect of the program has been investigated—the policy of insisting on an unrealistically light case load. When questioned later, experienced counselors who have completed the internship, have unanimously endorsed the continuation of this policy. They report that once having had an opportunity to give all the time they wish to a single case, to experiment with new devices and new methods, they find they can make occasion, even in the rush of a crowded schedule, to put these devices and methods into use. They cannot do so as often as they wish, they report, but they add that without the internship experience they would not be likely to do so at all.

Reference

1. Hamrin, Shirley A. *Four square planning.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1949.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO ISSUES FRESHMAN CLASS BIOGRAPHY

Each year the Office of Admissions of the University of Chicago prepares a biographical sketch of the incoming freshman class of The College of the University of Chicago. This year's report, sent to 8,000 high school counselors throughout the nation, gives statistics on applications and acceptances, how the freshmen fared in their scholastic aptitude tests, how many A, B, or C students were admitted and many other data about the Class of 1964. In this report, Charles D. O'Connell, Director of Admissions, asked the help of high school counselors on how "non-intellective factors" can be evaluated for their effect on a student's college career. According to Dr. O'Connell, this sketch is the single most important document issued by the Office of Admissions to college guidance counselors at secondary schools throughout the country.

program are two-fold: (1) *service to the pupils* and the guidance department of the high school, and (2) *training opportunities* of a realistic nature for a carefully selected group of qualified counselor-interns. Normally, both purposes are given equal emphasis; however, interns are never permitted to forget that pupils are not guinea pigs and that in case of conflict the pupils' welfare must come first.

The goals of counseling (service to the pupils) are specifically defined in advance as the following:

1. To help each youngster who volunteers for counseling to get a clearer picture of himself—of his own abilities, interests, opportunities, and personality;
2. To provide him with reliable and realistic information about vocational and educational requirements, rewards, and opportunities;
3. To teach him the process of intelligent planning so that he may become progressively more able to guide himself intelligently;
4. To provide a warm and friendly climate designed whenever appropriate to encourage free expression of personal feelings in the presence of an understanding and accepting adult guide; and
5. To encourage a recognition of the importance of seeking help on personal problems while at the same time developing an appreciation of the fact that the best help is that which helps one to help oneself, not that which involves excessive dependence on another.

The Basic Minimum Counseling Program

It is recognized from the outset that many pupils who come seeking educational and vocational testing and counseling will in actual fact be seeking help with personal or emotional problems as well. The philosophy of the intern program is that counseling procedures should always be sufficiently flexible to permit any pupil to open up for exploration any avenue he wishes. At the same time, it is found desirable to have established a rather definite basic minimum program for dealing with youngsters who have come simply for educational and vocational help and feel no need for opening up in other areas. Interns are reminded that counseling need not be deemed to have failed every time a pupil fails to come up with some serious personality disturbance. This basic program also serves as a potential refuge when a youngster who has opened up personal problems too rapidly suddenly needs to retreat temporarily to safer ground.

Essentially, the basic minimum program is simply the direct implementation of the first three goals of counseling stated above. This can be thought of as a process which has five phases. The first phase is the *initial interview.* This is a period of getting acquainted. In matter of actual time involved it may be as little as only part of the first counseling session or as much as several interviews. The two main objectives of this phase are establishing rapport and obtaining biographical data.

The second phase is the *basic test battery.* This is the battery of tests common to all counselees and usually consists of at least one vocational interest inventory, one "personality" inventory, one scholastic aptitude test, and perhaps additional specific aptitude or achievement tests in areas such as reading as well. In practice, these data may all be available beforehand in the cumulative records of the pupil or they may all be obtained by special testing administered by the counselor-intern; most often they will be obtained from a combination of both sources.

The third phase is the *developmental interview.* This phase, too, may range from as few as one to as many as a long series of counseling sessions. In this phase, the counselor begins to work toward the three "goals of counseling"—helping the pupil to get a clearer picture of himself, helping him to get a more realistic picture of the world of work, and helping him to learn the process of intelligent planning.

The fourth phase develops naturally out of the third and is a *"tailor-made" battery of tests*—tests selected to provide information relevant to the particular purposes of this particular pupil. Tests chosen for this second battery will be of two major kinds; retesting areas covered in the basic test battery to confirm possibilities or resolve conflicts, and exploration of specialized aptitudes or achievement in certain critical areas. For example, not all pupils would

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WASHINGTON FLASHES

Transmitted by Max F. Baer

NEGRO EMPLOYMENT IN FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

Improvement noted: There has been significant upgrading of Negroes in federal government employment, according to President's Committee on Government Employment Policy. During past four years there has been substantial increase of Negroes in grades 5 through 15. There has been significant increase in proportion of Negroes to total of all employees in these grades. Wider distribution and diffusion of Negroes has occurred in grades 6 and above.

1956 Survey: In 1956, President's Committee made survey of Negroes in executive branch of government in five principal cities—Washington, D. C., Chicago, St. Louis, Los Angeles, Mobile. Results indicated that while number of Negroes employed by these agencies was substantial, figures on Negroes employed in white-collar positions showed that great majority were in first four grades, serving for most part in clerical positions—with few in upper professional, administrative, or technical levels. At grade 5 level Negro white-collar employment began to drop off sharply.

New Survey: Current study is based on number of Negroes in grades 5 through 15 employed on March 31, 1960, compared with those employed on March 31, 1956, by 53 agencies of executive branch in same five cities. In five cities combined, numbers of Negroes serving in upper grades increased by 86% in four years. Percentage increases for each city were: Washington, 75; Chicago, 128; St. Louis, 168; Los Angeles, 175; Mobile, 466.

Negroes get larger share: These increases represent larger share of upper-level jobs being filled by Negroes and are not simply reflection of over-all increase in upper-grade employment. In Washington Negroes represented 4.1 per cent of employment in grades 5-15 in 1956 and 6.4 per cent in 1960. In Chicago percentage rose from 3.7 to 7.5; in St. Louis from 2.2 to 4.3; in Los Angeles from 1.4 to 2.7; in Mobile from 0.2 to 0.6. For all cities percentage jumped from 3.7 to 5.9.

Distribution within specific grades: Although large proportion of total increases came at grade 5, total effect of increases was to shift distribution of those upper-grade Negroes from grade 5 toward upper-middle grades. Major gain in distribution developed in grade 6, with relative loss in grade 7. However, in upper-middle grades of GS-9, 10, 11, and 12, there was combined

relative increase of 4.1 per cent. There has been little change in Negro employment at highest levels, namely, in grades 13, 14, and 15. There were increases at all three of these levels in Washington, and in Grades 12 and 13 in Chicago. In remaining three cities, Negroes have not yet appeared at these grades.

IMAGE OF FEDERAL PUBLIC SERVICE

Important study under way: Brookings Institution is working on highly important study on Occupational Standing and Appeal of the Federal Public Service in Relation to Occupational Striving and Motivating Goals in American Life. Some preliminary information in nature of progress report was given recently by F. P. Kilpatrick of Brookings. Foremost among objectives of study is to learn what is "occupational image" of Federal public service. Second major objective is to find out what American people are striving for and what they are trying to move away from, or avoid, in their occupations. Information is to be used both for comparative and trend analysis. There have been over 3,700 one-and-one-half hour personal interviews with individuals selected. Major sample consists of 1,200 regularly employed persons, 17 to 60 years of age, who are not employed by federal government. There will also be about 1,700 interviews of federal employees conducted in 657 different federal installations.

Occupational values: Brookings has done enough tabulation and analysis to make one early generalization about distribution of concern with occupational values, said Kilpatrick. Values are distributed in hierarchical pattern with respect to both occupational level and educational level. At bottom of occupational and educational ladder there is heavy concern with such occupational values as income, security, relationship with supervisors, physical working conditions, etc. As one moves up occupational-educational ladder, these values begin to drop out as matters of concern and there emerges instead concern with such values as sense of achievement, challenge, service to others, independence, self-expression, and creativity.

Attitude of general public: According to Kilpatrick, preliminary findings indicate that predominant attitude toward national civil service is one of moderate respect. About one respondent in four had something negative to say. But heavy majority took much more favorable view. Most people feel, on other hand, that they would be moving down ladder if they shifted to federal employment, and this feeling is especially strong in upper educational and occupational groups. Civil service employment is perceived in far more stereotyped manner than employment in private business. Legislators and appointive administrators are far more favorably regarded than many previous studies indicated. In general civil service employment is seen as more appropriate for women than for men.

The Place of the Person in the New World of the Behavioral Sciences

THE SCIENCE of psychology, in spite of its immaturities and its brashness, has advanced mightily in recent decades. From a concern with observation and measurement it has increasingly moved toward becoming an "if-then" science. By this I mean it has become more concerned with the discernment and discovery of lawful relationships such that *if* certain conditions exist, *then* certain behaviors will predictably follow. It is rapidly increasing the number of areas or situations in which it may be said that if certain describable, measurable conditions are present or are established, then predictable, definable behaviors are learned or produced.

Now in one sense every educated person is aware of this. But it seems to me that few are aware of the breadth, depth, and extent of these advances in psychology and the behavioral sciences. And still fewer seem to be aware of the profound social, political, ethical, and philosophical problems posed by these advances. I would like to focus on some of the implications of these advances.

Let me venture first to review a few selected examples of what I mean by the increased ability of psychology to understand and predict or control behavior. I have chosen them to illustrate the wide range of behaviors involved. I shall summarize and greatly simplify each of the illustrations, with only a suggestion of the evidence which exists. As a general statement I may say that each illustration I will give is supported by reasonably rigorous and adequate research, though like all scientific findings, each is open to modification or correction through more exact or imaginative future studies.

What then, are some of the behaviors or learnings for which we now know how to supply the antecedent conditions? I would stress that we know how to produce these effects in the same way, though not with the same exactitude, that the physicist knows how to set up the conditions under which given substances will go through a process of atomic fission or fusion. They are instances of what we know how to achieve or accomplish.

We know how to set up the conditions under which many individuals will report as true, judgments which are contrary to the evidence of their senses. They will, for example report that Figure A covers a larger area than Figure B, when the evidence of their senses *plainly* indicates that the reverse is true. Experiments by Asch [*1*] later refined and improved by Crutchfield [*4*] show that when a person is led to believe that everyone else in the group sees A as larger than B, then he has a strong tendency to go along with this judgment and in many instances does so with a real belief in his false report.

Not only can we predict that a certain percentage of individuals will thus yield and disbelieve their own senses, but Crutchfield has determined the personality attributes of those who will do so and by selection procedures would be able to choose a group who would almost uniformly give in to these pressures for conformity.

We know how to change the opinions of an individual in a selected direction, without his ever becoming aware of the stimuli which changed his opinion. A static, expressionless portrait of a man was flashed

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This hitherto unpublished paper will be presented in somewhat expanded form in a new book by Dr. Rogers which should be published in the spring or summer of 1961, by Houghton-Mifflin. The probable title of the book is *On Becoming a Person* and will contain, in addition to this paper, a selection of writings of Dr. Rogers from the past decade.

on a screen by Spence and Klein [17]. They requested their subjects to note how the expression of the picture changed. Then they intermittently flashed the word "angry" on the screen, at exposures so brief that the subjects were consciously completely unaware of having seen the word. They tended, however, to see the face as becoming more angry. When the word "happy" was flashed on the screen in similar fashion, the viewers tended to see the face as becoming more happy. Thus they were clearly influenced by stimuli which registered at a subliminal level, stimuli of which the individual was not, and could not be, aware.

We can predict, from the way individuals perceive the movement of a spot of light in a dark room, whether they tend to be prejudiced or unprejudiced. There has been much study of ethnocentrism, the tendency toward a pervasive and rigid distinction between ingroups and outgroups, with hostility toward outgroups, and a submissive attitude toward, and belief in the rightness of, ingroups. One of the theories which has developed is that the more ethnocentric person is unable to tolerate ambiguity or uncertainty in a situation. Operating on this theory Block and Block [3] had subjects report on the degree of movement they perceived in a dim spot of light in a completely dark room. (Actually no movement occurs, but almost all individuals perceive movement in this situation.) They also gave these same subjects a test of ethnocentrism. It was found, as predicted, that those who, in successive trials, quickly established a norm for the amount of movement they perceived, tended to be more ethnocentric than those whose estimates of movement continued to show variety.

This study was repeated, with slight variation, in Australia [18], and the findings were confirmed and enlarged. It was found that the more ethnocentric individuals were less able to tolerate ambiguity, and saw less movement than the unprejudiced. They also were more dependent on others and when making their estimates in the company of another person, tended to conform to the judgment of that person.

Hence it is not too much to say that by studying the way the individual perceives the movement of a dim light in a dark room, we can tell a good deal about the degree to which he is a rigid, prejudiced, ethnocentric person.

We know the attitudes which, if provided by a counselor or a therapist, will be predictably followed by certain constructive personality and behavior changes in the client. Studies we have completed in recent years in the field of psychotherapy [11–13, 19] justify this statement. The findings from these studies may be very briefly summarized in the following way.

If the therapist provides a relationship in which he is (a) genuine, internally consistent; (b) acceptant, prizing the client as a person of worth; (c) empathically understanding of the client's private world of feelings and attitudes; then certain changes occur in the client. Some of these changes are: the client becomes (a) more realistic in his self-perceptions; (b) more confident and self-directing; (c) more positively valued by himself; (d) less likely to repress elements of his experience; (e) more mature, socialized and adaptive in his behavior; (f) less upset by stress and quicker to recover from it; (g) more like the healthy, integrated, well-functioning person in his personality structure. These changes do not occur in a control group and appear to be definitely associated with the client's being in a relationship with these qualities.

We know how to provide animals with a most satisfying experience consisting entirely of electrical stimulation. Olds [6] has found that he can implant tiny electrodes in the septal area of the brain of laboratory rats. When one of these animals presses a bar in his cage, it causes a minute

current to pass through these electrodes. This appears to be such a rewarding experience that that animal goes into an orgy of bar pressing, often until he is exhausted. Whatever the subjective nature of the experience it seems to be so satisfying that the animal prefers it to any other activity. I will not speculate as to whether this procedure might be applied to human beings, nor what, in this case, its consequence would be.

We know how to provide psychological conditions which will produce vivid hallucinations and other abnormal reactions in the thoroughly normal individual in the waking state. This knowledge came about as the unexpected by-product of research at McGill University [2]. It was discovered that if all channels of sensory stimulation are cut off or muffled, abnormal reactions follow. If healthy subjects lie motionless to reduce kinaesthetic stimuli, with eyes shielded by translucent goggles which do not permit perception, with hearing largely stifled by foam rubber pillows as well as by being in a quiet cubicle, and with tactile sensations reduced by cuffs over the hands, then hallucinations and bizarre ideation bearing some resemblance to that of the psychotic occur within a relatively short time in most subjects. What the results would be if the sensory stifling were continued longer is not known because the experience seemed so potentially dangerous that the investigators were reluctant to continue it.

I hope that these few illustrations will have given some concrete meaning to the statement that the behavioral sciences are making strides in the understanding, prediction, and control of behavior. In important ways we know how to select individuals who will exhibit certain behaviors; to establish conditions in groups which will lead to various predictable group behaviors; to establish conditions which, in an individual, will lead to specified behavioral results; and in animals our ability to understand, predict, and control goes even further, possibly foreshadowing future steps in relation to man.

If your reaction is the same as mine then you will have found that this picture I have given has its frightening as well as its strongly positive aspects. With all the immaturity of this young science, and its vast ignorance, even its present state of knowledge contains awesome possibilities. Perhaps it makes clear the reason why Robert Oppenheimer, one of the most gifted of our natural scientists, looks out from his own domain of physics, and out of the experiences in that field voices a warning. He says that there are some similarities between physics and psychology, and one of these similarities "is the extent to which our progress will create profound problems of decision in the public domain. The physicists have been quite noisy about their contributions in the last decade. The time may well come—as psychology acquires a sound objective corpus of knowledge about human behavior and feeling—when the powers of control thus available will pose far graver problems than any the physicists have posed" [7].

Among behavioral scientists it seems to be largely taken for granted that the finding of such science will be used in the prediction and control of human behavior. Yet most psychologists and other such scientists have given little thought to what this would mean.

I should like to try to present, as well as I can, a simplified picture of the cultural pattern which emerges if we endeavor to shape human life in terms of the behavioral sciences. This is one of two possible directions I wish to consider.

There is first of all the recognition, almost the assumption, that scientific knowledge is the power to manipulate. Dr. B. F. Skinner of Harvard says: "We must accept the fact that some kind of control of human affairs is inevitable. We cannot use good sense in human affairs unless someone engages in the design and construction of environmental conditions which affect the behavior of men" [*14*].

Let us look at some of the elements which are involved in the concept of the control of human behavior as mediated by the behavioral sciences. What would be the steps

in the process by which a society might organize itself so as to formulate human life in terms of the science of man?

First would come the selection of goals. In a recent paper [14] Dr. Skinner suggests that one possible goal to be assigned to the behavior technology is this: "Let man be happy, informed, skillful, well-behaved, and productive." In his book, *Walden Two* [16], where he can use the guise of fiction to express his views, he becomes more expansive. His hero says, "Well, what do you say to the design of personalities? Would that interest you? The control of temperment? Give me the specifications, and I'll give you the man! What do you say to the control of motivation, building the interests which will make men most productive and most successful? Does that seem to you fantastic? Yet some of the techniques are available, and more can be worked out experimentally. Think of the possibilities . . . Let us control the lives of our children and see what we can make of them."

What Skinner is essentially saying here is that the current knowledge in the behavior sciences, plus that which the future will bring, will enable us to specify, to a degree which today would seem incredible, the kind of behavioral and personality results which we wish to achieve.

The second element in this process would be one which is familiar to every scientist who has worked in the field of applied science. Given the purpose, the goal, we proceed by the method of science—by controlled experimentation—to discover the means to these ends. The method of science is self-correcting in thus arriving at increasingly effective ways of achieving the purpose we have selected.

The third element in the control of human behavior through the behavioral sciences involves the question of power. As the conditions or methods are discovered by which to achieve our goal, some person or group obtains the power to establish those conditions or use those methods. There has been too little recognition of the problem involved in this. To hope that the power which is being made available by the behavioral sciences will be exercised by the scientists, or by a benevolent group, seems to me a hope little supported by either recent or distant history.

It seems far more likely that behavioral scientists, holding their present attitudes, will be in the position of the German rocket scientists specializing in guided missiles. First they worked devotedly for Hitler to destroy Russia and the United States. Now, depending on who captured them, they work devotedly for Russia in the interest of destroying the United States, or devotedly for the United States in the interest of destroying Russia. If behavioral scientists are concerned solely with advancing their science, it seems most probable that they will serve the purposes of whatever individual or group has the power.

But this is, in a sense, a digression. The main point of this view is that some person or group will have and use the power to put into effect the methods which have been discovered for achieving the desired goal.

The fourth step in this process whereby a society might formulate its life in terms of the behavioral sciences is the exposure of individuals to the methods and conditions mentioned. As individuals are exposed to the prescribed conditions this leads, with a high degree of probability, to the behavior which has been desired. Men then become productive, if that has been the goal, or submissive, or whatever it has been decided to make them.

To give something of the flavor of this aspect of the process as seen by one of its advocates, let me again quote the hero of *Walden Two*. "Now that we *know* how positive reinforcement works, and why negative doesn't" he says, commenting on the method he is advocating, "we can be more deliberate and hence more successful, in our cultural design. We can achieve a sort of control under which the controlled, though they are following a code much more scrupulously than was ever the case under the old system, nevertheless *feel free*. They are doing what they want to do, not what they are forced to do. That's the source of the tremendous power of positive reinforcement—there's no restraint and no revolt. By a careful cultural design, we control not

the final behavior, but the *inclination* to behave—the motives, the desires, the wishes. The curious thing is that in that case *the question of freedom never arises*" [*16, p. 218*].

The Picture and Its Implications

Let me see if I can sum up very briefly the picture of the impact of the behavioral sciences upon the individual and upon society, as this impact is explicitly seen by Dr. Skinner and implied in the attitudes and work of many, perhaps most, behavioral scientists. Behavioral science is clearly moving forward; the increasing power for control which it gives will be held by some one or some group; such an individual or group will surely choose the purposes or goals to be achieved; and most of us will then be increasingly controlled by means so subtle we will not even be aware of them as controls. Thus whether a council of wise psychologists (if this is not a contradiction in terms) or a Stalin or a Big Brother has the power, and whether the goal is happiness, or productivity, or resolution of the Oedipus complex, or submission, or love of Big Brother, we will inevitably find ourselves moving toward the chosen goal, and probably thinking that we ourselves desire it. Thus if this line of reasoning is correct, it appears that some form of completely controlled society—a Walden Two or a 1984—is coming. The fact that it would surely arrive piecemeal rather than all at once, does not greatly change the fundamental issues. Man and his behavior would become a planned product of a scientific society.

You may well ask, "But what about individual freedom? What about the democratic concepts of the rights of the individual?" Here too Dr. Skinner is quite specific. He says quite bluntly, "The hypothesis that man is not free is essential to the application of scientific method to the study of human behavior. The free inner man who is held responsible for his behavior . . . is only a prescientific substitute for the kinds of causes which are discovered in the course of scientific analysis. All these alternative causes lie *outside* the individual" [*15, p. 447*].

I have endeavored, up to this point, to give an objective picture of some of the developments in the behavioral sciences and an objective picture of the kind of society which might emerge out of those developments. I do however have strong personal reactions to the kind of world I have been describing, a world which Skinner explicitly (and many another scientist implicitly) expects and hopes for in the future. To me this kind of world would destroy the human person as I have come to know him in the deepest moments of psychotherapy. In such moments I am in relationship with a person who is spontaneous, who is responsibly free, that is, aware of his freedom to choose whom he will be and aware also of the consequences of his choice. To believe, as Skinner holds, that all this is an illusion and that spontaneity, freedom, responsibility, and choice have no real existence would be impossible for me.

I feel that to the limit of my ability I have played my part in advancing the behavioral sciences, but if the result of my efforts and those of others is that man becomes a robot, created and controlled by a science of his own making, then I am very unhappy indeed. If the good life of the future consists in so conditioning individuals through the control of their environment and through the control of the rewards they receive, that they will be inexorably productive, well behaved, happy or whatever, then I want none of it. To me this is a pseudo-form of the good life which includes everything save that which makes it good.

And so I ask myself, is there any flaw in the logic of this development? Is there any alternative view as to what the behavioral sciences might mean to the individual and to society? It seems to me that I perceive such a flaw and that I can conceive of an alternative view. These I would like to set before you.

Ends and Values in Relation to Science

It seems to me that the view I have presented rests upon a faulty perception of goals and values in their relationship to science. The significance of the *purpose*

of a scientific undertaking is, I believe, grossly underestimated. I would like to state a two-pronged thesis which in my estimation deserves consideration. Then I will elaborate the meaning of these two points.

1. In any scientific endeavor—whether "pure" or applied science— there is a prior personal subjective choice of the purpose or value which that scientific work is perceived as serving.

2. This subjective value choice which brings the scientific endeavor into being must always lie outside of that endeavor and can never become a part of the science involved in that endeavor.

Let me illustrate the first point from Dr. Skinner's writings. When he suggests that the task for the behavioral sciences is to make man "productive," "well-behaved," etc., it is obvious that he is making a choice. He might have chosen to make men submissive, dependent, and gregarious, for example. Yet by his own statement in another context man's "capacity to choose," his freedom to select his course and to initiate action—these powers do not exist in the scientific picture of man. Here is, I believe, the deepseated contradiction or paradox. Let me spell it out as clearly as I can.

Science, to be sure, rests on the assumption that behavior is caused—that a specified event is followed by a consequent event. Hence all is determined, nothing is free, choice is impossible. But we must recall that science itself and each specific scientific endeavor, each change of course in a scientific research, each interpretation of the meaning of a scientific finding, and each decision as to how the finding shall be applied rests upon a personal, subjective choice. Thus science in general exists in the same paradoxical situation as does Dr. Skinner. A personal, subjective choice made by man sets in motion the operations of science, which in time proclaims that there can be no such thing as a personal, subjective choice. I shall make some comments about this continuing paradox at a later point.

I stressed the fact that each of these choices, initiating or furthering the scientific venture, is a value choice. The scientist investigates this rather than that, because he feels the first investigation has more value for him. He chooses one method for his study rather than another because he values it more highly. He interprets his findings in one way rather than another because he believes the first way is closer to the truth, or more valid—in other words that it is closer to a criterion which he values. Now these value choices are never a part of the scientific venture itself. The value choices connected with a particular scientific enterprise always and necessarily lie outside of that enterprise.

I wish to make it clear that I am not saying that values cannot be included as a subject of science. It is not true that science deals only with certain classes of "facts" and that these classes do not include values. It is a bit more complex than that, as a simple illustration or two may make clear.

If I value knowledge of the "three R's" as a goal of education, the methods of science can give me increasingly accurate information as to how this goal may be achieved. If I value problem-solving ability as a goal of education, the scientific method can give me the same kind of help.

Now if I wish to determine whether problem-solving ability is "better" than knowledge of the three R's, then scientific method can also study those two values, but *only*—and this is very important—only in terms of some other value which I have subjectively chosen. I may value college success. Then I can determine whether problem-solving ability or knowledge of the three R's is more closely associated with that criterion. I may value personal integration or vocational success or responsible citizenship. I can determine whether problem-solving ability or knowledge of the three R's is "better" for achieving any one of these values. But the value or purpose which gives meaning to a particular scientific endeavor must always lie outside of that endeavor.

Though our concern here is largely with applied science what I have been saying seems equally true of so-called pure science. In pure science the usual prior subjective value choice is the discovery of truth. But

this is a subjective choice, and science can never say whether it is the best choice, save in the light of some other value. Geneticists in Russia, for example, had to make a subjective choice of whether it was better to pursue truth, or to discover facts which upheld a governmental dogma. Which choice is "better"? We could make a scientific investigation of those alternatives, but only in the light of some other subjectively chosen value. If, for example, we value the survival of a culture then we could begin to investigate with the methods of science the question as to whether pursuit of truth or support of governmental dogma is most closely associated with cultural survival.

My point then is that any scientific endeavor, pure or applied, is carried on in the pursuit of a purpose or value which is subjectively chosen by persons. It is important that this choice be made explicit, since the particular value which is being sought can never be tested or evaluated, confirmed or denied, by the scientific endeavor to which it gives birth and meaning. The initial purpose or value always and necessarily lies outside the scope of the scientific effort which it sets in motion.

Perhaps, however, the thought is that a continuing scientific endeavor will evolve its own goals; the initial findings will alter the directions, and subsequent findings will alter them still further and that the science somehow develops its own purpose. This seems to be a view implicitly held by many scientists. It is surely a reasonable description, but it overlooks one element in this continuing development, which is that subjective, personal choice enters in at every point at which the direction changes. The findings of a science, the results of an experiment, do not and never can tell us what next scientific purpose to pursue. Even in the purest of science, the scientist must decide what the findings mean and must subjectively choose what next step will be most profitable in the pursuit of his purpose. And if we are speaking of the application of scientific knowledge, then it is distressingly clear that the increasing scientific knowledge of the structure of the atom carries with it no necessary choice as to the purpose to which this knowledge will be put. This is a subjective personal choice which must be made by many individuals.

Thus I return to the proposition with which I began this section of my remarks—and which I now repeat in different words. Science has its meaning as the objective pursuit of a purpose which has been subjectively chosen by a person or persons. This purpose or value can never be investigated by the particular scientific experiment or investigation to which it has given birth and meaning. Consequently, any discussion of the control of human beings by the behavioral sciences must first and most deeply concern itself with the subjectively chosen purposes which such an application of science is intended to implement.

An Alternative Set of Values

If the line of reasoning I have been presenting is valid, then it opens new doors to us. If we frankly face the fact that science takes off from a subjectively chosen set of values, then we are free to select the values we wish to pursue. We are not limited to such stultifying goals as producing a controlled state of happiness, productivity, and the like. I would like to suggest a radically different alternative.

Suppose we start with a set of ends, values, purposes, quite different from the type of goals we have been considering. Suppose we do this quite openly, setting them forth as a possible value choice to be accepted or rejected. Suppose we select a set of values which focuses on fluid elements of process, rather than static attributes. We might then value:

Man as a process of becoming; as a process of achieving worth and dignity through the development of his potentialities;

The individual human being as a self-actualizing process, moving on to more challenging and enriching experiences;

The process by which the individual creatively adapts to an ever new and changing world;

The process by which knowledge transcends itself, as for example the theory of relativity transcended Newtonian physics,

itself to be transcended in some future day by a new perception.

If we select values such as these, we turn to our science and technology of behavior with a very different set of questions. We will want to know such things as these.

Can science aid us in the discovery of new modes of richly rewarding living? More meaningful and satisfying modes of interpersonal relationships?

Can science inform us as to how the human race can become a more intelligent participant in its own evolution—its physical, psychological and social evolution?

Can science inform us as to ways of releasing the creative capacity of individuals, which seem so necessary if we are to survive in this fantastically expanding atomic age? Dr. Oppenheimer has pointed out [8] that knowledge, which used to double in millenia or centuries, now doubles in a generation or a decade. It appears that we will need to discover the utmost in release of creativity if we are to be able to adapt effectively

In short, can science discover the methods by which man can most readily become a continually developing and self-transcending process, in his behavior, his thinking, his knowledge? Can science predict and release an essentially "unpredictable" freedom?

It is one of the virtues of science as a method that it is as able to advance and implement goals and purpose of this sort as it is to serve static values such as states of being well-informed, happy, obedient. Indeed we have some evidence of this.

A Small Example

I will perhaps be forgiven if I document some of the possibilities along this line by turning to psychotherapy, the field I know best.

Psychotherapy as Meerloo [5] and others have pointed out can be one of the most subtle tools for the control of one person by another. The therapist can subtly mold individuals in imitation of himself. He can cause an individual to become a submissive and conforming being. When certain therapeutic principles are used in extreme fashion, we call it brainwashing, an instance of the disintegration of the personality and a reformulation of the person along lines desired by the controlling individual. So the principles of therapy can be used as a most effective means of external control of human personality and behavior. Can psychotherapy be anything else?

Here I find the developments going on in client-centered psychotherapy [11] an exciting hint of what a behavioral science can do in achieving the kinds of values I have stated. Quite aside from being a somewhat new orientation in psychotherapy, this development has important implications regarding the relation of a behavioral science to the control of human behavior. Let me describe our experience as it relates to the issues of today's discussion.

In client-centered therapy, we are deeply engaged in the prediction and influencing of behavior. As therapists we institute certain attitudinal conditions, and the client has relatively little voice in the establishment of these conditions. Very briefly, as I indicated earlier, we have found that the therapist is most effective if he is: (a) genuine, integrated, transparently real in the relationship; (b) acceptant of the client as a separate, different, person, and acceptant of each fluctuating aspect of the client as it comes to expression; and (c) sensitively empathic in his understanding, seeing the world through the client's eyes. Our research permits us to predict that if these attitudinal conditions are instituted or established, certain behavioral consequences will ensue. Putting it this way sounds as if we are again back in the familiar groove of being able to predict behavior, and hence able to control it. But precisely here exists a sharp difference.

The conditions we have chosen to establish predict such behavioral consequences as these: that the client will become more self-directing, less rigid, more open to the evidence of his senses, better organized and integrated, more similar to the ideal which he has chosen for himself. In other words we have established by external control conditions which we predict will be followed by internal control by the individual, in

pursuit of internally chosen goals. We have set the conditions which predict various classes of behaviors—self-directing behaviors, sensitivity to realities within and without, flexible adaptiveness—which are by their very nature *unpredictable* in their specifics. The conditions we have established predict behavior which is essentially "free." Our recent research [*12*] indicates that our predictions are to a significant degree corroborated, and our commitment to the scientific method causes us to believe that more effective means of achieving these goals may be realized.

Research exists in other field—industry, education, group dynamics—which seems to support our own findings. I believe it may be conservatively stated that scientific progress has been made in identifying those conditions in an interpersonal relationship which, if they exist in B, are followed in A by greater maturity in behavior, less dependence upon others, an increase in expressiveness as a person, an increase in variability, flexibility, and effectiveness of adaptation, an increase in self-responsibility and self-direction.

Thus we find ourselves in fundamental agreement with John Dewey's statement: "Science has made its way by releasing, not by suppressing, the elements of variation, of invention and innovation, of novel creation in individuals" [*10*]. We have come to believe that progress in personal life and in group living is made in the same way, by releasing variation, freedom, creativity.

A Possible Concept of the Control of Human Behavior

It is quite clear that the point of view I am expressing is in sharp contrast to the usual conception of the relationship of the behavioral sciences to the control of human behavior, previously mentioned. In order to make this contrast even more blunt, I will state this possibility in a form parallel to the steps which I described before.

1. It is possible for us to choose to value man as a self-actualizing process of becoming; to value creativity, and the process by which knowledge becomes self-transcending.

2. We can proceed, by the methods of science, to discover the conditions which necessarily precede these processes, and through continuing experimentation, to discover better means of achieving these purposes.

3. It is possible for individuals or groups to set these conditions, with a minimum of power or control. According to present knowledge, the only authority necessary is the authority to establish certain qualities of interpersonal relationship.

4. Exposed to these conditions, present knowledge suggests that individuals become more self-responsible, make progress in self-actualization, become more flexible, more unique and varied, more creatively adaptive.

5. Thus such an initial choice would inaugurate the beginnings of a social system or subsystem in which values, knowledge, adaptive skills, and even the concept of science would be continually changing and self-transcending. The emphasis would be upon man as a process of becoming.

I believe it is clear that such a view as I have been describing does not lead to any definable Utopia. It would be impossible to predict its final outcome. It involves a step by step development, based upon a continuing subjective choice of purposes, which are implemented by the behavioral sciences. It is in the direction of the "open society," as that term has been defined by Popper [*9*], where individuals carry responsibility for personal decisions. It is at the opposite pole from his concept of the closed society, of which Walden Two would be an example.

I trust it is also evident that the whole emphasis is upon process, not upon end states of being. I am suggesting that it is by choosing to value certain qualitative elements of the process of becoming, that we can find a pathway toward the open society.

The Choice

It is my hope that I have helped to clarify the range of choice which will lie before us and our children in regard to the behavioral sciences. We can choose to use our growing knowledge to enslave people in ways never dreamed of before, depersonalizing them,

controlling them by means so carefully selected that they will perhaps never be aware of their loss of personhood. We can choose to utilize our scientific knowledge to make men necessarily happy, well-behaved, and productive, as Dr. Skinner suggests. We can, if we wish, choose to make men submissive, conforming, docile. Or at the other end of the spectrum of choice we can choose to use the behavioral sciences in ways which will free, not control; which will bring about constructive variability, not conformity; which will develop creativity, not contentment; which will facilitate each person in his self-directed process of becoming; which will aid individuals, groups, and even the concept of science to become self-transcending in freshly adaptive ways of meeting life and its problems.

If we choose to utilize our scientific knowledge to free men, then it will demand that we live openly and frankly with the great paradox of the behavioral sciences. We will recognize that behavior, when examined scientifically, is surely best understood as determined by prior causation. This is the great fact of science. But responsible personal choice, which is the most essential element in being a person, which is the core experience in psychotherapy, which exists prior to any scientific endeavor, is an equally prominent fact in our lives. That these two important elements of our experience appear to be in contradiction has perhaps the same significance as the contradiction between the wave theory and the corpuscular theory of light, both of which can be shown to be true, even though incompatible. We cannot profitably deny the freedom which exists in our subjective life, any more than we can deny the determinism which is evident in the objective description of that life. We will have to live with that paradox.

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ADMISSIONS AND GUIDANCE RESEARCH

in the University System of Georgia

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THE OFFICE of Testing and Guidance of the Board of Regents of the University System of Georgia was established in 1956 and was authorized to conduct related research and activities in the testing, evaluation, and guidance area. This is a small office with four staff members. It has at present two major functions, research and training. The primary research concerns the evaluation of the validity of College Board scores and high-school records for predicting grades in the 19 colleges of the University System. The Office also compiles distributions of obtained grades, obtained scores, and predicted grades to provide basic normative data for the University System. Other studies include examination of what happens to students after they are admitted (what kind of students withdraw, and for what reasons), possible improvements of academic predictions by using other predictors, and the development of refined procedures for prediction. The Office studies the use of tests for placement in specific courses in the colleges, and one of its important functions is providing data for use by high-school counselors in advising their students about going to college. In the area of training, the Office cooperates with the State Department of Education in conducting workshops, conferences, and in-service training for high-school counselors.

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Prediction of College Grades

Some of our prediction findings in the University System may be of interest to personnel workers. The average multiple correlation between first year average college grades (FAG) and our usual three predictors, *i.e.*, College Board Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) Verbal (V) and Mathematics (M) scores and high-school average (HSA), is in the 0.60's. These multiple correlations range from a low of about 0.40 to a high of about 0.80. Of the three predictors, high-school average is a little bit better than either of the SAT scores, but the difference is slight. We have found that even though boys score as well as girls on the aptitude tests and on most achievement tests, girls get better grades in both high school and college, and our multiple correlations average a little higher for girls. Because of these differences in the two sex groups, we have found it necessary to use different prediction equations for boys and for girls at coeducational institutions, and, because of differences in schools, we compute separate equations for each of our colleges.

In four of our colleges we have studied the degree to which our predictions of FAG could be improved by using achievement tests in addition to College Board scores and high-school records.

For these four colleges, the correlations between FAG and HSA, and between FAG and the individual SAT scores are shown in TABLE 1. The multiple correlations between FAG and these predictors in each college are also shown. The multiple correlations in these four colleges are relatively high—they range from 0.61 to 0.83. With the exception of the females at College C, these high correlations agree with those

TABLE 1

Correlations Between the Freshman Average Grade (FAG) and Various Predictors

	HSA	SAT V	SAT M	Multiple Correlation*
College A				
Males (N = 76)	0.63	0.42	0.41	0.69
Females (N = 121)	0.71	0.66	0.56	0.83
College B				
Females (N = 145)	0.60	0.68	0.54	0.79
College C				
Males (N = 85)	0.48	0.39	0.45	0.61
Females (N = 70)	0.59	0.58	0.48	0.76
College D				
Males (N = 158)	0.53	0.34	0.30	0.62
Females (N = 88)	0.60	0.48	0.30	0.69

* Multiple correlation between FAG and the combination of SAT V, SAT M, and HSA.

found the previous year, which would indicate relative stability. Their size might also indicate that we are reaching the maximum prediction possible.

At College A, six tests of the series of Sequential Tests of Educational Progress (STEP) were given. For the males, the multiple correlation when we add all six STEP tests to our three usual predictors is 0.77. In other words, all six STEP tests add only 0.08 to the correlation of 0.69 obtained from the predictors we normally use. The STEP Mathematics Test of the six seems to be the outstanding predictor. It alone added 0.03 to our multiple correlation. For the females, the multiple correlation with our three usual predictors and all six STEP tests is 0.86. This means that all the STEP tests, combined, added only 0.03.

At College B, which is a girls' school, the multiple correlation for the three predictors and the five STEP tests given in this college is 0.82, an addition of 0.03 to the multiple correlation for the three predictors alone. Here the STEP Social Studies Test adds 0.02 by itself.

In College C, for the males, four STEP tests (Reading, Science, Social Studies, and Mathematics) added 0.06 to the multiple of 0.61 obtained with our three usual predictors. Social Studies here added 0.04 by itself. For this particular group, HSA and STEP Social Studies yield a correlation of 0.61 with FAG, the same correlation that our usual three predictors produce. With the females at College C, four STEP tests give a very small addition of only 0.02 over HSA and the SAT scores.

In College D, five STEP tests were given plus the Cooperative Mathematics Achievement Test, the Barrett-Ryan English Test, and the Otis Mental Ability Test. For the males, the addition of these tests yields a multiple correlation of 0.70, an increase of 0.08. Here the STEP Reading Test alone adds 0.04. A combination of HSA and STEP Reading gives a correlation of 0.65. High-school average and the Barrett-Ryan together give 0.62. Both of these combinations for this particular group are as high or higher than the combination of HSA and SAT scores. For the females at College D, the multiple correlation from HSA, SAT, STEP (five scores), Barrett-Ryan, Coop Math, and Otis is 0.80. In this particular situation the STEP Science and the Otis seem to be the outstanding additional contributors. STEP Science and HSA, or Otis and HSA, are pairs of variables which will predict as well or better than our usual set of three.

No single STEP test seems to be an outstanding predictor. In College A, it was the Mathematics Test, in Colleges B and C, Social Studies, and in College D, Reading and Science.

The combinations of as many as six STEP tests as additional predictors produces increases of from 0.02 to 0.11 or the relatively small average increase of 0.06. Attaining this increase is very expensive in terms of testing time and in terms of the time required in the admissions office for applying up to a nine-variable prediction equation to each applicant. Since a large number of variables were required to achieve the increase in prediction accuracy, some of it will disappear upon cross-validation.

As we previously noted, in all four of the colleges studied, the combination of our three usual predictors yields high correlations. It is possible that we are very closely

approaching the maximum and that it is impossible for any significant addition to be made by the STEP tests or any other predictors. Studies in schools in which the correlation of these three predictors is considerably smaller, and where there is more room for addition to predictability, might produce a different picture altogether. In situations where SAT scores are not available, there is a possibility that the STEP tests might add considerably to HSA for predicting college success. However, if later studies agree with ours, we would have to conclude that the STEP achievement tests add very little to the degree of prediction accuracy we are now obtaining with a combination of HSA, SAT V, and SAT M.

Placement in English and Mathematics

In our placement studies, we have found that for fields such as English and mathematics, the scores on the SAT are frequently as useful as special placement or achievement tests, even when the placement tests have been made up by the faculties teaching the English or mathematics courses. We have not yet studied the question of whether even better variables to use for placement would be the previous grades in the same field, *e.g.*, high-school English grades for placement in college English courses. However, we are convinced that studies of placement instruments must be made for each specific course. No general answer for the placement problem seems to hold across institutions.

Guidance Materials

High-school counselors can help colleges to reduce the admissions problem by preliminary screening, by finding appropriate colleges for their students, and by encouraging talented students to go on to college. We in turn can help the high-school guidance counselor by translating the information used by college admissions officers into a form easily used in the high school. In order to make such admissions information most useful to the high school, the Office of Testing and Guidance invited private colleges in Georgia which require the SAT to join with us and present data for all such colleges in Georgia in one document. Since most of the private colleges did not have facilities or personnel for analysis of their own data, the Office of Testing and Guidance conducted the data analysis for both public and private colleges. Thirteen of the 30 private colleges in Georgia (each one that requires the SAT) agreed to cooperate. At present, the *Counselor's Guide* [*1*] provides admissions information on 28 of Georgia's 50 colleges.

The matter of how best to present these data to high-school counselors was of some interest. The data must be made as simple and as easy to use as possible. To keep the colleges happy, the data must avoid inviting comparisons of such things as average College Board scores. Colleges are rightfully sensitive about the fact that laymen often attempt to judge the quality of the college by the kind of student it admits, rather than the kinds of changes the college makes in the students after they have arrived.

A third feature of the data should be an emphasis on the statistical nature of the predictions. Frequently, people are encouraged to state predictions in the form, "Jimmy is most likely to make a C average at North Georgia College according to our previous experience." While this means that the most probable grade for Jimmy is a C, there are lesser probabilities for Jimmy of grades on either side of that value. But most parents, and we fear many of the people doing counseling in high schools, tend to hear that statement as more like, "We have sized Jimmy up, and he'll be a C student at North Georgia College." Jimmy's most likely grade may be a C, but Jimmy may also have one chance in four of obtaining a B or better average, and he might think those odds are quite good. He might be rather discouraged to be told that he can't do better than C work, which may be the way Jimmy hears the statement.

We think we have found a good solution to the problem. It involved developing a simple formula from the regression equation for predicting grades in each college for each sex. With each of these formulas goes a table which permits the counselor to take a student's College Board scores and his

TABLE 2

Probabilities of College Grades Associated with Various Index Numbers at East Georgia College

Boys $V + M + 6\ HSA$				*Girls* $V + 10\ HSA$			
Index	*C or Better*	*B or Better*	*A*	*Index*	*C or Better*	*B or Better*	*A*
1,300	0.98	0.51	0.02	1,200			0.98
1,200	0.93	0.26	0.01	1,100			0.81
1,100	0.80	0.10		1,000		0.99	0.43
1,000	0.57	0.02		900		0.87	0.11
900	0.32	0.01		800	0.99	0.52	0.01
800	0.13			700	0.91	0.15	
700	0.04			600	0.61	0.02	
600	0.01			500	0.22		
				400	0.03		

high-school average, to substitute them in the simple formula, and to find from the table the probabilities of that student's getting a C or better average, a B or better average, or a straight A average during his first year at the college. For example, tables for a fictitious institution appear in TABLE 2.

The College Board scores are automatically sent to a college or to a high-school counselor. A high-school average is computed for this purpose by giving 40 points for an A, 30 points for a B, etc. For a boy with a College Board V of 400, an M of 450, and high-school average of 25, we would substitute into the equation for boys. That equation is V + M + 6 HSA. The result is an Index of 1,000. We look in the table for boys and find that for a value of 1,000 the probability of a C or better average is 0.57, the probability of a B or better average is 0.02, and the probability of a straight A average is essentially zero at East Georgia College.

If a girl had a V of 400, an M of 390, and a HSA of 30, the Index would be 700, and we would expect her to have 91 chances in 100 of a C or better average, 15 chances in 100 of a B or better average, and less than one chance in 100 of a straight A average at East Georgia College. The simplified formulas of V + M + 6 HSA and V + 10 HSA came directly from the multiple regression equations for these students. In no case does the simplification reduce the correlation between the predictors and college grades by more than 0.01. In cases where one of the predictors does not appear in the equation, such as in the equation for girls at this fictitious college, the reason is that we have found that the multiple correlation using only two predictors is within 0.02 of the multiple correlation using three. In such a case, we merely drop the predictor which is not contributing appreciably to the multiple correlation and rework the solution for two predictors. This happens in about half of our equations.

We find this to be a very simple procedure, requiring from the user only rudimentary multiplication and addition. Without any appreciable sacrifice in accuracy, the task for the counselor has been enormously reduced, and counselees seem to like and understand this way of examining their potential. Still, it would require considerable sagacity to pin down mean scores on the three predictors for boys and girls at East Georgia College. Probably anyone who could do that would know enough to realize that he had much more useful data in the table than would be provided by the most precise knowledge of mean scores. And the "probable" nature of predictions is abundantly clear in these tables.

We explored making the process even more simple by finding one model equation which would fit almost every college with satisfactory accuracy. However, we have not yet found any way to accomplish this.

Since we estimate that at least 3,000 students graduate from Georgia high schools each year who are of college caliber, *i.e.*, in the top third of their classes, but who do not go to college mainly because they have never thought of it, we have taken one more step. We have prepared tables based only on the HSA for predicting grades in college. A college will usually have a student's grades, whether he has taken the SAT or not. Maybe by showing good students that they are good college material, high-school counselors will be able to interest them in going to college, and, incidentally, in taking the SAT.

Withdrawals from University System Colleges

Our admissions predictions and the distribution of predicted grades for students admitted to the University System colleges indicate that a large number of students are being admitted who are not predicted to do well. To ascertain what happens to these students in our colleges, we studied the withdrawals from the University System colleges of students who were admitted as freshmen in 1957. In the fall of 1958, each college registrar reported the quarter of withdrawal, the cumulative average grade at that time, and the registrar's record of one of 12 reasons for the student's having withdrawn.

Out of the 5,092 students who entered the University System in the fall of 1957, 1,982 (39 per cent) had withdrawn by the end of the freshman year. The rate of attrition, *i.e.*, the percentage of the class withdrawn, varies widely within the University System. One college lost 61 per cent of its freshman class during the first year, while another college lost only 25 per cent. One-fourth of the 19 colleges lost over half of their freshman classes, and no college had more than three-fourths of the class returning in 1958.

When we examine the reasons for withdrawal from college, we find that only two per cent of the total number of withdrawing students are known to have withdrawn for financial reasons. Only one per cent are known to have withdrawn because of illness. The largest group of withdrawn students is those who leave after the spring quarter, and, although eligible to return in the fall, simply do not reappear. This category accounts for 41 per cent of the withdrawals. An investigation of these "unknowns" has shown that in most of our colleges, many of them were achieving below C averages. We might assume, then, that the 25 per cent who are reported as withdrawing for scholastic deficiency is actually an underestimate of the proportion of students withdrawing for that reason.

We compared the mean HSA, SAT V, and SAT M scores for students who withdrew for scholastic reasons and students who remained in school to begin their sophomore year. We found that the students who remained in school had significantly higher scores on at least one of the prediction variables in all but one college. For the most part, those students, who were predicted to obtain above C averages, *i.e.*, to "survive," did survive, and 80 per cent of those who withdrew for scholastic reasons were predicted to make less than C averages. Less than 10 per cent of those predicted to make above C averages had withdrawn for scholastic reasons. From 35 to 70 per cent of the students predicted to make below C averages were still in school at the end of the freshman year. On closer examination, however, it was found that these students were achieving just about what they were predicted to achieve, below C averages, even though the college has not yet seen fit to exclude them.

Summary

Some of the salient findings of our research are:

1. The average multiple correlation between first-year college grade and a combination of high-school average grade, College Board Verbal score, and College Board Mathematics score, in the 19 units of the University System of Georgia is about 0.65, with multiple correlations ranging from about 0.40 to about 0.80. The correlations average a little higher for girls, and the high-school average is a slightly better predictor than either of the test scores taken alone.

2. College Board scores are frequently

useful for placement of students in English and mathematics courses.

3. Adding even a sizeable number of additional test scores to the prediction equations seems to produce relatively small increases in predictability. The average increase in the multiple correlation is 0.06. This increase is achieved at the expense of many hours of additional testing time.

4. The information used by college admissions officers in making admissions decisions can be translated into a form which is easily used in the high school, emphasizes the probability aspect of predictions, and is acceptable to the colleges.

5. Thirty-nine per cent of students who enter University System colleges as freshmen have withdrawn by the beginning of the sophomore year. Of those, 25 per cent or more withdraw for scholastic reasons. An additional 22 per cent transfer to other institutions. Less than 2 per cent withdraw for financial reasons, and only one per cent withdraw because of illness.

6. Students who withdraw for scholastic reasons tend to be the students whose College Board scores and high-school record indicated that they would be expected to make less than a C average grade during their first year.

Reference

1. Hills, J. R. Franz, Gretchen, & Emory, Linda B. *Counselor's guide to Georgia colleges.* Atlanta: Regents of the University System of Georgia, 1959.

CHART SHOWS USE OF HIGH SCHOOL SUBJECTS IN NAVAL JOBS

"Use Your Education" is the title of a chart devised by the U. S. Navy to aid the student and the counselor. The main subject field areas of the high school are listed in the center of the chart with the various occupations in the Navy listed on each side. A red star indicates that a subject is used daily while a blue star indicates the subject is used occasionally. While the occupational titles used are the various Navy billets, there is application to civilian occupations of the same or similar types.

Printed in color, the charts are available in two sizes. One is mounted on cardboard with an easel back for classroom use. The second is a folder type and punched to fit the student's $8^1/_2$ x 11 loose-leaf notebook. They may be obtained in quantity lots by calling the nearest Navy recruiter or writing to School Relations, 1833 Navy Annex, Bureau of Naval Personnel, Washington, D. C.

Psycho-Social Aspects of Work:

A Critique of Occupational Information

JOSEPH SAMLER

OUR BRIEF HISTORY in vocational guidance reveals a period extending through the thirties of what may be termed a trait-centered approach in matching men and jobs. Perhaps it was Rogers' great impact, perhaps it was the revival of psychoanalytic thought after its lapse in the twenties, perhaps it was our growing curiosity concerning our own behavior that led to what many have termed a clinical approach in vocational counseling. It is strange that we had to wait so long since Frank Parsons and Clifford Beers set the benchmarks, respectively, of the vocational guidance and mental hygiene movements in precisely the same year. It is strange that for more than 30 years, the two influential streams of thought traveled parallel but separate courses.

The influence of personality theory on the work of the vocational counselor is well known. Indeed, hindsight, always 20-20, reveals that the correction to a limited approach of "true reasoning" concerning matching interests, abilities, and aptitudes with job demands may have gone too far. Nothing was clearer and more disconcerting than the pecking order which emerged with the white-coated psychiatrist at the top of the status hierarchy, followed by the similarly attired clinical psychologist, with the guidance worker bringing up an uncomfortable rear. The preferred activity in many guidance offices became personality analysis, and the quest for help in occupational choice was seen as a masked symptom of personality disorder.

Perhaps the pendulum had to swing to its end before it could settle to its own more limited orbit. Only in current literature are we beginning to see the conceptualization of an approach which delimits the appropriate roles of counseling and clinical psychologists.

Nevertheless the progress made in enriching counselor consideration of his client as a dynamic entity is indubitable and most rewarding. In the new perception of the counselor, the client became invested with feelings, aspirations, conflicts, problems, relationships with significant people in his life and these, for the counselors who were not embarrassed at helping with occupational decisions, enriched and made vital the client's problem in occupational development.

The motivation for this paper, however, came into being as a result of the continuing observation that desirable though personality oriented vocational guidance is, it is a one-sided development and that for critical other aspects of the process, we are about where we were at early stages in our professional development. For examination here is not the nature of the counselor-client relationship but the counselor's consideration of that world which the client with his unique picture of himself, his particular identity, must enter: the world of work.

The Reality of Occupational Information

It is demonstrable that resources in occupational information have remained relatively insulated. I am concerned here with the nature of occupational information available to counselor and client. The pertinent questions have to do with the

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reality of the picture that emerges for the client after available information is studied, with its deficiencies, and the extent to which the picture is distorted because of its shortcomings.

The point should not be mistaken. It is not that trend data are not current, earnings are reported inaccurately, or that the reality of union organization is slighted. As far as is known, there is increasing adherence to the NVGA Standards for Use in Preparing and Evaluating Occupational Literature [7]. It is even believed that counselors are increasingly competent at catching the omissions in such information and are properly suspicious of the handout with an axe to grind.

What concerns me and my co-workers is that the same kind of rich consideration of personality dynamics that now dramatizes assessment and understanding of the client is not available in considering the role and function of work. We look in vain for a dynamic appreciation of work in terms of the individual's role, his self-concept or identity, the exercise of his attitudes and fulfillment of his values, status consideration, and other related factors.

And yet there is no longer any serious question that work is much more than a means of paying the supermarket cashier or of meeting mortgage payments. Caplow [3], Super [13], and Roe [8] have established the point that work is a way of life, that it affects the way we think of ourselves, the neighborhood we live in, the kind of clothes we wear, our leisure time activities, the friends we make, the values we hew to—the list is endless.

Although systematic research has still to validate it, there seems reason for thinking that occupational adjustment, the complex we identify as job satisfaction, may be much more dependent upon psychodynamic aspects than upon wages, duties, hours of work, physical conditions, and so on.

Such psychological factors are not completely lacking in the available materials. The NVGA Outline, for instance, with reference to worker qualifications, states in item VC "Special physical, mental, social, and personal qualifications, excluding those obviously necessary for success in all types of work." But this is the only such sub-item in 16 major categories of items. The Functional Occupational Classification Project takes into account a number of interest and temperament factors. An occasional reference in the standard leaflet or brochure discusses personality attributes necessary for competent performance on the job. But even these limited provisions are in themselves inadequate. The references to personality factors are in generalized terms; they are likely to have moralistic overtones; and they are cast in terms of job qualifications as against needs satisfactions.

Thus a paragraph from the *Outlook* discussion of School Counselors states:

> It is especially important for counselors to be well adjusted, even tempered, and able to inspire the confidence of students. In a recent survey, school principals given a list of qualifications indicated that they considered the following items most important in selecting counselors: (a) personality factors, such as emotional stability, (b) successful teaching experience before entry into counseling, and (c) graduate study in guidance [1].

The usual coverage of the by now standard occupational information release is revealed by its outline. The highly useful *Occupational Outlook Handbook* comprehends each of its presentations under the six-part outline: Nature of Work, Where Employed, Training and Other Qualifications, Employment Outlook, Earnings and Working Conditions, and Where to Go for Other Information. Spot checking of various issues from SRA, Chronicle Press, Bellman, B'nai B'rith, Personnel Services, and the others, reveals treatment under a variable outline which contains more areas than does the Outlook outline, but the approach is much the same.

The Economic Man; the Psychological Man

It should be crystal clear that the picture occupational information presents today is one of the Economic Man. It is a one dimensional portrayal of man who, contrary to the soundest of folk wisdom, lives by bread alone. There is no question of the need for a common framework of economic

considerations, wages, competitive conditions of training and education, the duties performed in payment for wages received, the lines of advancement, the certification and union membership conditions, and so on. But the skeleton, like all such structures, lacks individuality, character, and uniqueness. For the central orientation of the economic man, the technique of choice for occupational information is job analysis and indeed as the nature of occupational information is revealed, this is precisely how such data are gathered. This is true for the capsules in the DOT, for the studies underlying the FOCP, for the descriptive material in the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* and for their large following of commercial publications of occupational information.

It seems a fair statement that as far as present resources in occupational literature are concerned, information that would characterize the Psychological Man at work is deficient or nonexistent. It is a conclusion, however, that each of us can check for ourselves. In the Outlook Handbook, from page 45 to page 758, embodying the occupational descriptions and outlook statements, I was able to identify 35 paragraphs of the type presented before, in some way concerned with attributes of the kind looked for. This must not be regarded as criticism of the Handbook, however, since it reflects the best available thinking in the field as to the essentials of occupational information.

It is quite interesting that the greatest contribution in this area seems to be made not by the text but by the occasional picture which typically reveals by the expression on the face of the worker, his posture, his inferred relationship with the person interacting, something of important relationships.

It is tempting to say that as against the concept of the Economic Man we must postulate the concept of the Psychological Man, but this would not be correct. Rather, we are concerned with both concepts in the utilization of insights and understandings of man at work. Since, however, we have a *good* understanding of the first, our emphasis, as a corrective, will be on the second.

But we must agree on what we're talking about when we refer to the Psychological Man. We refer here to the worker's role, his ability to work at a task that is congruent with his identity, the exercise of his values and attitudes, considerations of status, ways of meeting anxiety, patterns of interaction with others, out-of-work style of life, and totally, the way in which his personality needs will be met. They are all the considerations that deal with personality dynamics not infrequently so well taken into account in assessing the counseling client.

Three Illustrations

Some will accept the need for such information as self-evident. For others the point needs to be reinforced and perhaps can be done best by example.

In the available descriptions of registered professional nurses, duties are described, specialties presented, training is outlined, costs are given, there is occasional reference to desired personality characteristics, the employment outlook is discussed, and there is considerable attention to earnings and working conditions. The pattern is taken from the Outlook Handbook but with some variation it is the same for other briefs describing this occupation. It is a picture as indicated before of the Economic Man (or in this case, obviously, of the Economic Woman). Contrast it with only a paragraph from Thorner:

> It will be recalled that the nurse is faced with the problem of achieving a compromise between the functionally specific impersonality of her role and the therapeutically beneficial expression of interest, warmth, kindness, and sympathy elicited both by the condition of the patient and his expectations of what constitutes proper feminine conduct. The nurse, however, cannot allow herself to become emotionally involved without paying a penalty. Patients are often irritating, demanding, and unreasonable; they suffer intensely, weeping and moaning; they die. If she were to take these things to heart, if she were to bring her professional cares home with her, the nurse would collapse under the strain. Although impersonality is the norm, deviating reactions to a serious case sometimes occur. These, however, are very largely confined to private duty nursing, since regular staff nurses have too many patients to allow

the development of emotional attachments. This condition facilitates the operation of functionally specific impersonality. A private duty nurse on occasion may identify with the patient to such a degree that she will suffer with the patient and, if he dies, she may mourn. The other reaction is quite different. The nurse identifies and suffers with the patient up to a certain degree of intensity of suffering on his part. Beyond that, she becomes extremely detached; the patient becomes "it." Should "it" die, however, the nurse may collapse in a nervous breakdown [*15*].

Similarly we can contrast the information on the job of the union business agent as presented in the available literature with a more psychologically oriented presentation. SRA Occupational Brief No. 255, *Industrial and Labor Relations Workers,* offers the following as part of its discussion of the field of work:

Practically every union officer, regardless of his job, performs labor relations work in his everyday duties. The main job of the business agent is to see that employer-union agreement is being lived up to and to settle grievances and misunderstandings. In some companies that operate under union agreements, grievances of employees are handled through the shop stewards who are elected for each department. In a large concern, there is a steward for each department. Stewards are employees of the company, but are allowed time off for their grievance work.

One of the important labor relations tasks of a union officer is negotiating agreements with employers. He draws up, negotiates, and interprets union contracts. He supervises picketing, strike benefits, and presents the union's case at arbitration meetings.

Consider the contribution however made by the following paragraphs, part of a more extensive discussion.

As a result of these time demands, opportunities for activities beyond the union sphere (home, family, friends, etc.) were severely limited during the work week and sometimes during the weekends as well. The weekends provided the business agents with a chance to 'catch up' or sometimes were filled with meetings that either could not be fitted into the five-day week or were of an emergency nature. The job demanded all, and any reluctance to give unsparingly was viewed critically by others in the organization. Consequently, considerable psychological, as well as physical, isolation from family and friends occurred. The lack of interest in, or understanding of, the business agents' problems shown by these groups also enhanced the agents' isolation. The psychological and physical anchoring points for the union business agents had to be, and literally were, in the job.

Although they were operating under constant tension, they could not afford to show it. In all but exceptional situations, they were expected to keep their tempers and be diplomatic with management, to keep a respectfully factual attitude with arbitrators, to maintain a sympathetic attitude toward the rank and file, to support and teach their subordinate union officers, and to be helpfully constructive with their peers. They were expected to approach problems with enthusiasm, and to devote untold energy to each phase of their work. They had to be tireless, ever-enthusiastic, emotionally involved, yet intellectually calm.

The business agents, then, were operating in an environment that demanded their time and energy to the exclusion of normal social intercourse with other groups. They were constantly faced with problems of others and were responsible for taking over such burdens. They were confronted with situations that negated the advisability of being open, of sharing, or of taking the word of either antagonist or protagonist. They were always expected to be ready to take on new responsibilities with enthusiasm and grace, and to encounter aggression and hostility in others with tact and diplomacy. They lived and worked for and with others, but could not share with them [*10*].

In the same way we can contrast references to secondary school teachers. If we select from a standard reference (*Occupational Outlook Handbook*) those paragraphs that come closest to a psychological view of work, we find the following:

Secondary school teachers—those employed in junior and senior high schools—usually specialize in a subject-matter field such as English, history, mathematics, or science. They teach several classes every day either in their main field only or in that field and one or two related subjects. The most frequent combinations are English and history or other social science subjects; mathematics and general science; and chemistry and biology or general science. Teachers in fields such as home economics, agriculture, commercial subjects, driver education, music, art, and industrial arts are less likely to have classes in other subjects.

Besides giving classroom instruction from 20 to 30 hours each week, secondary school teachers also develop and plan teaching materials, develop and correct tests, keep records, make out reports, consult

with parents, and perform other duties. Many of them supervise student extra-class activities—sometimes after regular school hours. Maintenance of good relations with parents, the community, and fellow teachers is an important aspect of their jobs.

But consider the insight Crambs gives us about the teacher as a member of a minority group:

> The behavior of teachers as members of a minority group is an outgrowth of other aspects of the role of the teacher in the community. The teacher in the small community is conspicuous. Everyone knows who the teacher is; children are everywhere, and seem to be countless little spies reporting on what the teacher is doing. The typical reaction is that of the young teacher who remarked, 'I feel as if I lived in a goldfish bowl.' Although neighbors and friends observe each other casually in their daily routines, teachers are subjected to many more such observations, since their range of acquaintances is wider than for most others in the community. All 500 children of a school will eventually know Miss Smith, the fifth-grade teacher; many of the parents will know her. What she wears, what she does, and whom she is seen with are commented on by many people. It is no wonder that Miss Smith feels conspicuous. This sort of conspicuousness is, in some respects, similar to that felt by the Negro; wherever he goes he is immediately 'seen.' The teacher likewise is always recognized as 'teacher.' And recognition in the context of the American Puritan tradition also implies judgment. To be known is flattering if one is of high status, otherwise it is hardly to be desired [4].

Or two paragraphs from Becker's discussion of teacher-pupil relationship.

> Discipline is the second of the teacher's major problems with her students. Willard Waller points to its basis when he wrote that 'Teacher and pupil confront each other in the school with an original conflict of desires, and however much that conflict may be reduced in amount, or however much it may be hidden, it still remains.' We must recognize that conflict, either actual or potential, is ever present in the teacher-pupil relationship, the teacher attempting to maintain her control against the children's efforts to break it. The conflict is felt even with those children who present least difficulty; a teacher who considered her pupils models of good behavior nevertheless said:
>
> But there's tension all the time. Between you and the students. It's hard on the nerves. Teaching is fun, if you enjoy your subject but it's the discipline that keeps your nerves on edge, you know what I mean? There's always that tension. Sometimes people say 'Oh, you teach school. That's an easy job, just sitting around all day long.' They don't know what it's really like. It's hard on your nerves! [2].

These are excerpts only, of course, and while they are believed to be representative of this type of literature, they cannot be offered as such. Nevertheless, the manner in which the worker's personality needs will be met becomes much clearer through this type of discussion. It leaps to the eye that even in these brief paragraphs the occupation comes alive. The workers live and breathe and interact. Accordingly the message they give is all the more alive and meaningful.

The Available Materials

The point to be made here is that the type of occupational information literature available to the counselor does not reflect the ideas and insights suggested as essential for man at work. Further that, as is evident, there *is* such a literature, but it does not happen to be in the sources generally used by the counselor. It does not *happen* to be there because the basic orientation of present occupational literature is toward job analysis and the Economic Man. We must look, therefore, to the psychological and sociological sources.

Here we find a fertile area. As a reasonably good sample, every issue of the *American Sociological Review* and the *American Journal of Sociology* for 1956, 1957 and 1958 was checked. This is a total of 36 issues for both publications. Material relating to style of life in work, status, role, personality needs were found in 49 articles in 27 issues. It is scarcely necessary to remind ourselves of the widespread contributions by sociologists in their studies of the factory worker, white-collar worker, nurses, student-physicians, psychiatrists, and other occupations.

That this should not be news to counselors is indicated in the articles carried in the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* by Danskin in the November, 1955, and October, 1957, issues. In the second of these Danskin lists 70 references to pertinent literature of the type discussed.

The Essential Research

One useful area of activity, it seems clear, is attention by writers of occupational information to this area of information and its integration within the occupational picture presented. While this would greatly enrich occupational information literature, in itself it is not enough. This is because we will be taking material that happens to be available. What is available is not necessarily best suited for us, changing with the changing sociology of the occupation, or sufficiently comprehensive to meet our needs for the large array of information necessary in considering a spread of occupations in counseling.

It should be quite clear by now that we require a systematic approach in securing the information we need. The problem is to identify as best we can with available techniques, and better as new theory evolves and more sensitive instruments are developed, those psychological and sociological aspects of occupations that may make the difference for the particular individual between sound choice and poor choice, between the ability to meet the expectations the individual establishes in accordance with his identity and their frustration, between the exercise of attitudes and values to the advantage of the worker and his unhappiness in functioning in a situation and in a way contrary to his basic behavior choices, between patterns of interaction with others that are rewarding and those that annoy and frustrate him; totally the problem is one of meeting his personality needs or of thwarting them.

How should this be done? The beginning of such a work is available. In 1959, reviewing the literature on personality needs in occupations, Gray annotates 22 specific investigations dealing with personality variables in occupations or student groups pursuing different courses of study [*5*]. In their reviews of the sociology and psychology of work, Caplow [*3*], Super [*13*], and Roe [*8*], among others, refer to various studies in this area.

The need for additional descriptive materials of the cultural systems or subsystems of the job, occupation, industry, plant, shop, office, is self-evident. Theory must be built upon such descriptive data. It is a task that must involve the counseling psychologist as well as the social psychologist and sociologist. This is because the needs of the client and his counselor constitute a charter for such investigations.

We will need to develop the techniques and instruments to identify and assess the ideas central in this discussion. For instance, role aspiration will require definition and clarification as a personality manifestation and as a potential in given working situations. We shall have to come to terms with assessment of values in the function of personality and the possibility for their fulfillment at work. We shall have to sharpen constructs like "self-concept" and "identity" because they are totalities and probably not amenable to ready assessment or measurement in the individual or situation. Theory and techniques now available for assessing patterns of interaction with others probably could be utilized with little difficulty in this task. Our greatest need, of course, in this as in other areas, is for a sound and comprehensive theory of personality on which to build necessary structures of personality needs and their satisfaction. Work, after all, is only another setting for functioning of personality.

While working along these lines, we will have to consider a question raised by thoughtful observers. While Super feels that we need a great deal more information about the satisfaction of personality needs in occupations, he points out not only that there are many patterns of interaction in the same occupation, that different personality needs are satisfied, but that the job or occupation itself may lead to changes in attitude and values on the part of workers. There is a reciprocal effect in other words, worker to job, and job to worker [*13*]. Roe also points to the possibility that individual jobs have their own personality requirements [*9*]. In a paper delivered in 1959 Gustad raises the same issue [*6*].

The idea of a sociology and psychology not of occupations or industry but of individual jobs or positions is likely to prove so complex as to make such an approach fall

of its own weight. But probably the truth in this as in so many problems, lies somewhere in between, leaving room for an approach of the kind urged in this paper. While it is obvious, as Gustad points out, that medicine accommodates the "country-clubbing, extroversive individual, it also makes room for the shy retiring individual." Medicine as a whole, and other occupations or sub-occupational groups may require at least common denominators in personality investment and social functioning capable of identification and description.

Indeed in reviewing research in their monograph *Scientific Careers—Vocational Development Theory,* Super and Bachrach state:

> . . . there are sometimes advantages in working with more refined occupational categories such as creative researchers and routine assistants, pediatricians and surgeons, perhaps electrical engineers and sales engineers. Differentiating interest patterns which predict occupational choice and occupational stability have been identified for both occupations and specialties. In view of the failure to identify any clearcut personality patterns for occupations, and the success of preliminary personality studies of specialty groups, it would be worth ascertaining whether or not there are distinctive personality patterns for specialties (of both field and level) within a given occupation. It seems altogether likely that, once adequate designs and instruments are used, the differing role expectations of specialties will result in the finding of occupational personality patterns [*14*].

In coming closer to the task we cannot wait for the availability of competent personality theory or for the perfection of instruments or other assessment techniques, even though it is indisputable that 10 years from now we will know more than we know now and 25 years from now we will be even more skillful. At any given point in time, psychological functioning can best be assessed by the best methods then available. While there are a great many instruments, especially in personality assessment, that are worth just about the few cents they cost, there are others that are soundly based and sophisticated in their standardization and use.

Thus the TAT and the instruments based on that conceptually respectable instrument, *e.g.*, the Edwards Personality Profile Schedule, offers an obvious resource for our purpose and indeed Cleveland has addressed himself to this problem with promising results in terms of identification of the differential needs of dietitians, nurses, and other groups. Similarly other investigators have used other instruments, *e.g.*, the Allport-Vernon Studies of Values, and obtained differentiating patterns for different occupational groups. Other approaches, *e.g.*, using the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, have been referred to earlier in this paper.

One Clear Approach

There is one approach, however, which holds enough promise for identifying the Psychological Man at work to warrant brief description here. This is not, of course, the only method we can follow but illustrates what is possible. It is based on Murray's constructs for classifying psychogenic needs and consists of two parallel instruments for assessing the individual's needs and the need-related characteristics of a given situation.

This work is part of the research program of the Psychological Research Center at Syracuse University [*11*]. The two instruments consist of[1]:

1. The Stern Activities Index which consists of a list designed to reflect preference in interaction and therefore capable of being analyzed in terms of psychogenic needs.

The Activities Index identifies 42 needs as distinguishable patterns of manifest behavior.

Psychodiagnostic interpretations of individual profiles are based on a clinical appraisal of the relation between the various needs. The measures are quantified and have been subject to sophisticated statistical analysis.

2. Accompanying the Activities Index is another instrument, The College Characteristic Index.

[1]The statements following are drawn from or are paraphrased from the Preliminary Manual referenced in item 11 in the Reference list.

"In this case the purpose is to develop a measure of situational press as distinguished from individual needs."

The College Index has been constructed as a direct complement to the Activities Index. Corresponding to each Needs Scale of the Activities Index is a scale describing aspects of a college environment which would tend to satisfy, support, reward, or reinforce an individual who is characterized by the need in question.

Findings even thus far are most interesting:

1. Differences between faculty and student responses *within* an institution were found to be very much smaller than the difference in scores *between* institutions.
2. Each college appeared to be characterized by a distinctive press profile.

It is obvious that this approach is designed to assess differential needs satisfied by different colleges but it leaps to the eye that what we have here is a means of assessing in terms of psychogenic needs a particular social system, in this case a college setting. With different items descriptive of work settings, the approach could be precisely the same in assessing the press of the occupation or the work situation. Indeed Stern, Stein, and Bloom [*12*] report that a limited number of just such investigations using the present College Characteristic Index have been accomplished with most promising results.

The prospect of a new field of investigation in order to come to terms with the psychological realities of work is, of course, threatening. However, determination of the dimensions of the Psychological Man at work is a task that the counselor confronts every day in his work, only he does it, so to speak, off the cuff, on the basis of feel and personal experiences. Here too there is a parallel with the systematization of knowledge and technique in the work of the counselor. Assessment of interest, academic aptitude, personality traits are all cases in point; previously accomplished on the basis at best of the counselor's own experience, they have been rationalized so that as best we can we use scientific method and the findings of disciplined inquiry.

In any case we are up against it and in the self-respecting exercise of our function, have no choice. To deal only with the Economic Man at work is to deal only with one part of the worker's functioning, and while this is important, the evidence on every hand points to its inadequacy. Using available theory and methodology we must begin to assess the Psychological Man at work and put what we find to use in our counseling.

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Persistence of Vocational Choice of the Merit Scholarship Winners

AUBREY L. FORREST

Recent studies have reported the effectiveness of efforts to recruit top high school graduates into so-called "critical fields," namely, engineering, scientific research, teaching, and medicine. Typical of these surveys were two conducted in the fall of 1956.

One was a study of the National Association of Secondary School Principals of the 5,280 boys and 6,874 girls entered in its annual scholarship competition [*1*]. These college-bound seniors ranked in the top five per cent of their class and were members of the National Honor Society. Of this group, 30 per cent of the total and 46.5 per cent of the girls expected to enter the teaching profession; 16.7 per cent of the total and 37.3 per cent of the boys expected to enter engineering fields; 13.8 per cent of the total expected to enter the field of medicine; and 10.7 per cent of the total and 17.8 per cent of the boys expected to enter careers in science research.

Another study, conducted by the National Merit Scholarship Corporation, surveyed 5,078 semifinalists in the 1956 Merit Scholarship competition [2]. Results of this survey showed that 25 per cent of the total group and 56 per cent of the boys expected to enter careers associated with engineering or science research; 20 per cent of the total group and 36 per cent of the girls had selected a career in teaching; and 10 per cent of the total expected to enter some field of medicine.

Assuming persistence in these original choices, these figures would indicate to both the recruiters and counselors of talented youth that the critical fields were also the most popular. Only a few studies, however, have attempted to examine the persistence of vocational choice of highly talented youth.

At least one study indicates that 50 per cent of the normal college population will change fields of major during the four years of undergraduate study [*3*]. Iffert, in a study of 13,700 men and women in 149 colleges, asked students to check those major fields, from a list of 61 titles, in which they had great interest at the time they entered college. They were also instructed to indicate those subjects in which they next became interested, if they changed their major field of study while in college. The average persistence of interest for men in the 14 subject fields reported was 42.3 per cent. Women displayed an average persistency of interest in 16 subject fields of 45.2 per cent. For boys, the three fields which had the greatest "holding power" were engineering, physical education, and business administration. The three which had the least holding power were mathematics, biology, and chemistry. For girls, the fields demonstrating the most holding power were education, nursing, and home economics. Those which had the least holding power were social work, pre-medicine, and psychology. Iffert concluded that, "Changes in subject field of interest by college students tended to be identified with bread and butter considerations." Shifting from one field of study to another seemed to be due to practical considerations and financial opportunities. Iffert also noted that the major trends were from theoretical to practical subject fields of interest.

In a study based upon a questionnaire completed by scholarship winners in the

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1956 National Merit Scholarship Program at the end of their freshman year [4], Thistlethwaite found a tendency for Merit Scholars to shift from science to non-science major fields of study and from applied to theoretical fields.

These four studies raise questions of interest to both the recruiters and counselors of talented youth. To what extent do changes in major field of study indicate changes in vocational choice? How persistent are talented youth in their vocational choices? What are the patterns of change, if any? If patterns exist, what appear to be the motivations for change?

Method

In both the Iffert and Thistlethwaite studies, a single questionnaire was used and the subjects were asked to recall their original choice of major field. The present study was based upon two questionnaires completed by 507 of the 555 Merit Scholars selected in the 1956 National Merit Program. During the fall semester of the 1955–1956 school year, as high school seniors participating in the first Merit Program they were asked, "Look ahead fifteen years. Describe in a paragraph of not over one hundred words what you hope to be doing." A second questionnaire administered at the end of their third year of college asked, "What do you hope to be doing five to ten years after graduation?" Both questions related to approximately the same time period, 1965 to 1970.

Selected primarily on the basis of competitive tests from among the top one or two per cent of the nation's high school graduates, these Merit Scholars have been enrolled in 160 different colleges and universities throughout the country. Not included in this study are the 48 Scholars who had not completed three years of undergraduate study. Data are included for 368 males and 139 females.

In tabulating responses to both questionnaires, responses were included under each category only if it were clear that the respondent had decided upon a particular vocational area. Answers which were ambiguous or undecided were included in a category labeled "Undecided." Many of the female Scholars included marriage and family plans as primary or secondary preoccupations during the time period with which this study was concerned. These were disregarded and the part-time or full-time vocational choice was tabulated.

All categories were considered to be mutually exclusive. "Research" includes employment for pure research purposes, in private and governmental settings, including medical research. "Engineering" includes consulting, planning and practical employment in private and governmental enterprises. "Business" includes all employment in private practice at a management level, excluding those who are interested in purely legal aspects, but including those who may have scientific backgrounds, but specifically state their goal as being that of administration and management of personnel. "Military" includes only career officers, not engaged in scientific research.

The National Merit Scholarship Corporation receives from Scholars regular annual reports on which they inform the Corporation of their present major field of study. The following categories are used to classify major fields of study: literature and language; social sciences and history; physical science; engineering; art; music; business administration; speech and drama; mathematics; and philosophy and religion.

Findings

Data were tabulated on the changes and non-changes of major fields of study and vocational choice for the 292 males and 120 females whose first choice was classifiable. While 50 per cent of the males who had a specific first vocational choice changed their choice during the three and one-half year period, only 32 per cent changed major field of study. Among the females, 54 per cent changed their original vocational choice, while 39 per cent made a change in major field of study.

Of the 94 males who changed major field, 79 per cent changed also their vocational choice; of the 47 females who changed major field, 85 per cent changed also their vocational choice. Of the 198 males who made

no change in major field, 64 per cent also made no change in vocational choice; while of the 73 who made no change in major field, 66 per cent also made no change in vocational choice.

These data would indicate that although a change in major field is usually accompanied by a change in vocational choice and that persistence in one's major field is usually accompanied with persistence in vocational choice, there may exist a substantial number of exceptions to this tendency. This suggests another measure of stability of interest among talented youth.

It might be useful to study independently persistency in major field of study and persistency in vocational choice. We would, then, hypothesize that the interests of some students revolve around a major subject of interest, while the interests of others revolve around a vocational goal. If the data are examined in this light, we find that among the 292 males who had a classifiable choice of vocation and major field, 75 per cent maintained a preference for either their first field of study or their first vocational choice. Of the 120 females who had a classifiable choice of vocation and major field, 67 per cent maintained their interest in either their first choice of major or vocational goal. This indicates for both sexes a higher degree of stability of interest than would be indicated if we considered either major field of interest or vocational choice alone.

TABLE 1 shows the data for the 368 males responding to both questionnaires; 328 had a specific vocational choice on one or both questionnaires; and 261 indicated specific choices on both. In order to determine the pattern of change from the table, it should be read from the left-hand column to the top. For example, the number who changed from scientific research to science teaching is shown as 20. The totals and percentages in the four right-hand columns indicate the results of the two questionnaires.

Of the 292 having a specific choice on the first questionnaire, 73 per cent chose the scientific fields of science teaching, research,

TABLE 1

Patterns of Change in Vocational Choice of Male Merit Scholars (1956–1959)*

	Science Teaching	*Non-science Teaching*	*Research*	*Engineering*	*Medical Practice*	*Law & Gov't.*	*Business*	*Religion*	*Writing*	*Art & Music*	*Military*	*Undecided*	*Total (as of Dec. '55)*	*Per cent† (as of Dec. '55)*	*Total (as of Aug. '59)*	*Per cent† (as of Aug. '59)*
Science Teaching	10	2	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	19	5.2	49	13.3
Non-science Teaching	1	8	1	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	13	3.5	42	11.4
Research	20	8	53	3	4	2	9	2	..	..	1	11	113	30.7	72	19.6
Engineering	6	1	7	21	3	4	8	1	..	..	0.1	0.6	58	15.8	25	6.8
Medical Practice	1	2	2	..	15	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	22	6.0	27	7.3
Law & Gov't.	..	4	..	..	1	14	..	..	..	..	..	..	19	5.2	28	7.6
Business	..	3	2	1	2	..	20	..	..	..	..	6	34	9.2	39	10.6
Religion	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	2	5	1.4	8	2.2
Writing	..	1	..	..	..	1	1	..	3	..	..	1	7	1.9	3	0.8
Art & Music	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	2	0.5	2	0.5
Military	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0	0.0	2	0.5
Undecided	11	12	5	..	2	2	1	2	..	1	..	40	76	20.7	71	19.3

* Example: The number changing from scientific research to science teaching equals 20.

† Per cents are based on grand total of 368.

engineering and medicine; 50 per cent chose the theoretical fields of teaching and research. Of the 297 indicating a specific vocational choice in the second questionnaire, 58 per cent chose scientific fields; 55 per cent chose the theoretical fields.

Although these data indicate a tendency for male Scholars to move from scientific to non-scientific vocational fields and from applied to theoretical fields, the trends are not clear cut. Fields of engineering and medical practice showed slight increases, and the area of science teaching indicated a substantial increase. The major loss in the scientific area was in the field of research. The major increase in the non-scientific field was in non-science teaching. Also of interest was the trend shown for those originally undecided to go into the three theoretical fields of science teaching, non-science teaching, and research. There was a marked trend for those with a specific first choice, but who later became undecided, to move away from fields of science teaching, research, and engineering. This kind of change probably represents a period of transition in which these Scholars will follow their colleagues into non-science vocational fields. There is also some indication that there was a trend to move away from the business management field to more theoretical fields.

Perhaps a better indication of trends is to examine the 261 who had specific vocational choices at both times during the study. Of these, 114 changed their vocational choice. Of the 114, 51 per cent changed to more theoretical fields; 24 per cent changed to less theoretical fields; 25 per cent changed to fields in which the work was at about the same level of abstraction. Of the 114, 7 per cent changed from non-science to scientific fields; 43 per cent changed from science to non-science fields; and 55 per cent did not change from science to non-science or vice versa.

Of the female Scholars, 139 responded to both questionnaires; 132 had specific vocational choices on one or both questionnaires; and 107 indicated a specific choice on both questionnaires.

TABLE 2 shows the results of both questionnaires. Of the 120 who had specific vocational choices in the first questionnaire, 47 per cent chose the scientific fields; 50 per cent chose the highly theoretical fields. Of the 119 having a specific vocational choice in the second questionnaire, 35 per cent chose scientific fields; 66 per cent chose the theoretical fields.

The number of girls selecting science teaching remained stable, while non-science teaching showed a substantial increase. Research, engineering, and medical practice showed slight decreases.

Of the 107 who had vocational choices on both questionnaires, 53 changed their vocational choice. Of the 53 who changed, 47 per cent changed to more theoretical fields; 13 per cent changed to less theoretical fields; and 40 per cent changed to fields which were at approximately the same level of abstraction. Of the 53, 9 per cent changed from non-science to science fields; 34 per cent changed from science to non-science vocational fields; and 57 per cent did not change from science to non-science or vice versa.

Discussion and Summary

In this study of vocational plans of 507 Merit Scholars, it was found that about one-half changed vocational choice between their senior year in high school and the end of their junior year in college. Female Scholars demonstrated a slightly higher rate of change than male Scholars.

It was further demonstrated that a change in major field was closely related to change in vocational choice. In 80 per cent of the cases in which there was a change in major field, there was also a change in vocational choice; while in 65 per cent of the cases where there was no change in major field of study, there was also no change in vocational choice. This suggests that a strong tendency exists for a change in major field of study to result in a change in vocational choice, while a change in vocational choice is less likely to result in a change in major field. Perhaps this is because a vocational choice, at this point in a student's life, is easier to change, or at least to declare, than the major field of study choice. It was also found, however, that three-fourths of the males and

two-thirds of the females maintained their interest in either their original choice of vocational field or major field of study.

The present study indicates that the major patterns of change were from science to non-science fields and from practical to theoretical fields. The former trend seems to show that the efforts to recruit talented students into scientific fields have not been as successful as first thought on the basis of studies of original choices of major fields of study. Insofar as the critical field of teaching is concerned, indications are that more and more talented youth will tend to switch to the field of teaching as a part of the general trend from applied to theoretical fields.

One interpretation of the science to non-science trend would be that some high school students who are not really interested in science are being recruited by current efforts to increase the supply of scientists. There is also the possibility that the hope of winning a scholarship has played a role in influencing the stated preferences of vocational choice for these Merit Scholars. Because of the nature of some scholarship sponsors, a student seeking financial aid may feel that his chances of success are better if he states that he proposes to enter a science occupation.

Patterns of change in vocational choice of Merit Scholars were found to be different from those of the normal college population studied by Iffert. Merit Scholars are seemingly less concerned with "bread and butter considerations" in making occupational changes. This would suggest that the motivations or values of talented youth differ from those of the normal college population in that talented youth perceive certain benefits to be found in the more theoretical pursuits which are not to be found in the practical fields; or, such values or motivations may be the result of the high socio-economic status of Merit Scholars. The same observations may be made in comparing the attractiveness of scientific with non-scientific fields.

One further interpretation of the data

TABLE 2

Patterns of Change in Vocational Choice of Female Merit Scholars (1956–1959)*

	Science Teaching	*Non-science Teaching*	*Research*	*Engineering*	*Medical Practice*	*Law & Gov't.*	*Business*	*Religion*	*Writing*	*Social Work*	*Art & Music*	*Homemaking*	*Undecided*	*Total (as of Dec. '55)*	*Per cent† (as of Dec. '55)*	*Total (as of Aug. '59)*	*Per cent† (as of Aug. '59)*
Science Teaching	9	3	1	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	15	10.8	14	10.1
Non-science Teaching	..	21	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	4	27	19.4	52	37.4
Research	2	4	8	..	1	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	18	12.9	13	9.4
Engineering	..	3	1	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	7	5.0	6	4.3
Medical Practice	2	3	1	2	5	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	1	16	11.5	9	6.5
Law & Gov't.	..	1	..	..	2	2	..	..	1	..	..	..	3	9	6.5	5	3.6
Business	..	1	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	2.2	5	3.6
Religion	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	0.1	0.7	1	0.7
Writing	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	..	1	..	1	9	6.5	7	5.0
Social Work	..	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	6	4.3	2	1.4
Art & Music	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	2	..	2	8	5.8	5	3.6
Homemaking	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.1	0.7	0	0.0
Undecided	1	5	1	..	..	1	2	..	..	..	2	..	7	19	13.7	20	14.4

* Example: The number changing from scientific research to science teaching equals 2.

† Per cents are based on grand total of 139.

would include the possibility that the changes in vocational choice are related to the college experience *per se*. A recent study of Thistlethwaite suggests that college faculties in science and non-science areas differ significantly [5]. Thistlethwaite found that "faculties in the arts, humanities, and social sciences tended to exhibit an image which is more friendly, and enthusiastic, and supportive than that presented by faculties in the natural and biological sciences. The former impressed students as exerting more press for independence and less press for pragmatism and compliance." Thistlethwaite's analysis also pointed out certain pedagogical techniques which differentiated the science from the non-science faculties.

These interpretations have important implications for those who are concerned with the guidance and counseling of talented students, as well as for those who are seeking to recruit talented personnel for the critical occupational fields. Changes in vocational choice among talented youth appear to be motivated by desires to seek vocational areas which give more stress to humanistic values and to achievement in areas stressing or requiring work at higher levels of abstraction. Trends toward teaching may involve a desire for greater independence or other needs. It would appear then that recruiting efforts will fall short of success if they are limited to financial inducements alone.

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WORKSHOP ON THE EDUCATION OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

Education Extension, University of California at Los Angeles, has announced a five-week summer program in the education of exceptional children. Scheduled for June 26–July 28, the workshop will be designed especially for teachers and for those preparing for work in the field of special education. Both private and public agencies concerned with the exceptional child will cooperate in providing facilities for observation and study. Courses pertaining to the problems and education of emotionally disturbed children, the orthopedically handicapped, and the mentally retarded, as well as those with speech handicaps, will be offered. A new course in working with the parents of exceptional children has been planned. Dr. Ernest Willenberg, Director of Special Education, Los Angeles Schools, and Dr. Donald Leton, School of Education, University of California at Los Angeles, will serve as Special Consultants for the workshop.

For further information write to Mrs. Jerri Levin, Education Extension, University of California, Los Angeles 24, California.

A COUNSELOR DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM MEETS A GUIDANCE MANPOWER NEED

ROBERT N. WALKER

IN THE SPRING of 1953, two administrative decisions caused the Akron Public Schools to face a counseling manpower shortage similar to the one that many communities now confront as a result of National Defense Education Act influences. In this two-fold decision, the Akron schools determined to staff a rapidly expanding junior high school program with counselors at an approximate ratio of one counselor to 500 pupils and also to require that from then on, all new counselors must have counselor training and certification in guidance counseling by the Ohio Department of Education prior to their appointment. Because Akron was then opening one or two new junior high schools a year and because in the past, there had been little incentive for individuals to train as counselors, there developed an immediate and acute need for trained personnel. A source of these counselors was not immediately in sight. Projections of personnel needs for the decade following 1953 also suggested there would be a continuing and growing need for more trained counselors as additional secondary school buildings were opened, as the secondary enrollment grew, and as normal replacement needs increased with increasing staff size. Adequate staffing was therefore seen as the critical problem in guidance program development at that time.

The purpose of this article is to describe some of the methods used to meet this manpower problem. Together, they represent a planned campaign, not only to develop a number of trained and adequate counselors quickly, as was the need in 1953, but to assure a constant supply for expansion and replacement purposes as has been the need since. The effectiveness of any specific method is hard to assess, but the effectiveness of the total effort is indicated by the fact that it has produced nearly 40 qualified counselors in the six years of its operation and is responsible for the present existence of a counselor manpower pool adequate to meet the forseeable needs of the next few years. Over these six years, Akron has moved from a system with 22 full-time counselor equivalents for 12,800 secondary pupils housed in 11 buildings to 43 full-time counselor equivalents for 18,750 secondary pupils housed in 18 buildings.

Survey of Guidance Talent

The first step of the counselor development campaign was that of conducting a survey to determine the extent of the counselor talent to be found on the teaching staff. All secondary teachers were requested to complete a modified form of the questionnaire, "Survey of Guidance Preparation and Experience," originally devised by the U. S. Office of Education. Interested elementary teachers were also encouraged to submit the form. On this two-page questionnaire, the teacher could list his experience, training, and the degree of his interest, if any, in a counseling assignment. The results of this survey gave an immediate inventory of available talent. A number of prospects for immediate appointment to counselorships were located. Contacts were made with capable teachers untrained in counseling who indicated an interest in guidance to help them initiate training programs which would result in their eligibility for appointments.

Each year following the initial survey, the questionnaire has been given to teachers new to Akron schools with a covering letter

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explaining the interest in maintaining a continuing inventory of those interested in counseling. The questionnaires which are returned indicating interest are acknowledged by a personal letter inviting the new teacher to confer with the guidance director about opportunities in counseling and the requirements for appointment. By adding this ongoing survey of new teachers' interests to the basic survey done in 1953, a complete and up-to-date index of guidance talent on the teaching staff has been maintained.

Brochure on Counseling

Soon after the completion of the guidance talent survey, the guidance director began interviewing many prospective counselors. Some were well trained; many lacked any training at all. None had much idea of the nature of the expanding guidance program or an understanding of what qualifications were expected of a counselor or how counselors were appointed. To aid in explaining these points and to provide a helpful aide in recruitment, a brochure was prepared titled, "So You Want to Be a Counselor?" It contained a job description of the counselorship as practiced in Akron, a list of minimum qualifications for appointment to a counselorship, a list of the Ohio Department of Education requirements for certification, a description of the steps by which a counselor was appointed, some suggestions to the counselor-candidate as to what he might do to improve his chances of being appointed, and names and addresses of nearby counselor trainers to whom the candidate could turn for further advisement. Quantities of this brochure were placed in the hands of counselor trainers in the universities attended by most Akron counselors. It was used by interviewers in the Akron professional personnel office in talking with new teachers who had questions about counseling prospects. It was given to candidates interviewed by the guidance director. Although its use has now been discontinued, the brochure had significant impact and widespread usage from 1953 through 1956 and apparently made a significant contribution to the campaign.

Relations with Training Schools

Most of Akron's counselors received their training at either the municipal university or the nearby state university, both of which operate formal counselor training programs. One of the major strategies in the counselor development program, therefore, has been to establish and maintain close working relationships with the counselor trainers in these institutions. At the outset of the program in 1953, the trainers were advised of the immediate and long-range projections of counselor needs. This aided them in advising their trainees more accurately about employment trends and in predicting with more confidence that trainees could anticipate an expanding job market for trained personnel. As the cooperative program developed, trainers routinely referred trainees to the guidance director for pre-employment interviews. The guidance director referred to the trainers, teachers who had counseling ambitions and potential, but needed advisement about educational needs and opportunities. In the case of a number of trainees, the guidance director and counselor trainer planned cooperatively to assure that the trainee's college program was maximally effective in promoting his professional development.

In the spring of each year, the guidance director received from the university a list of trainees whose course program was complete enough that they could be certified and would be employable as counselors by the following fall. Trainers' recommendations were also forwarded to aid in the selection process. If these candidates had not been recently interviewed by the guidance director, interviews were set up and the employment possibilities for the coming fall discussed.

The Personnel Department Aids Development

In Akron, an assistant superintendent is responsible for professional personnel. He employs teachers, counsels with personnel about job problems, and plans for the professional staffing of the schools. In planning with the guidance director for the

counselor development program, his office made three distinct contributions. First, he referred to the guidance director for further interviews teaching personnel who, in conferences with him, indicated an interest in personnel work. Second, he suggested personnel work as a promotional pathway to teachers whose special patterns of interest and activities indicated they might be successful in this field, even though this notion had not occurred to the teacher. He also discussed personnel work as a possible specialization with new teacher prospects in pre-employment interviews, so they became aware that this was a field they might enter after gaining some teaching experience. His third contribution was to give preference to individuals trained or interested in counseling when employing them as teachers. This strategy was used at times when there were no counselor openings available and there was an oversupply of applicants in certain teaching areas. Under these conditions, individuals showing good prospects of eventually moving into counseling assignment were employed as teachers.

The net result of the efforts of the personnel office was to provide a flow of new counseling talent into the system by way of employment of new teachers and to encourage the movement toward counseling of teachers in the system who might be inclined by personality and interest patterns, if not training, toward this type of assignment.

Secondary Principals Also Help

Another group with which the guidance director worked closely was the secondary school principals. Since these men received the end-product of the development program, they cooperated very willingly in its operation. Their major assistance was in the identification and referral of staff members who they felt would make good counselors. Such persons were interviewed by the guidance director, given help in clarifying their thinking about counseling, and, if interested, in planning their career development. Principals also gave valuable aid by relaying to the counselor trainers, usually through the guidance director, information about individuals in training which enabled the college trainer to help them more effectively.

An attempt was made by the guidance director to anticipate openings for counselorships at least six months in advance. He then conferred with the principal of the affected school to determine whether he had on his own staff teachers who might be candidates for the open position. Often the principal could identify an excellent teacher with all the necessary qualifications except training. Six months to a year in advance of the actual opening, however, it was possible to plan with such a person to carry out a training program that would prepare him to be certified in time to qualify for the opening.

Principals were also asked to move teachers interested in counseling into various para-counseling assignments such as serving on guidance committees or as substitutes for counselors in their absence. In this manner, teachers were often better able to clarify their thinking about the counselorship and their interest in it. Their performance on these assignments also gave evidence of their potential for counseling and sometimes suggested whether or not they should be encouraged to take training and aim for a counseling appointment.

Counselors Promote Their Cause

The help of the existing counseling staff was enlisted in the drive for new counselors. Counselors were asked to interpret the field to interested colleagues and suggest they contact the guidance director for further advisement. Counselors also suggested to qualified teachers the possibility of their considering counseling as a career. Many of these teachers who had watched counselors at work found counseling to be interesting and challenging. Some were motivated to take formal training.

Counselors joined with principals in involving interesting teachers in guidance activities of many kinds. Some were on guidance committees. Others helped rather formally in testing programs. Many were involved in special guidance projects.

Their names were given to the guidance director for assignment to city-wide committees and study groups. Many counselors made it a point to bring these colleagues to professional meetings of guidance groups. From efforts such as this, a number of counselors were developed but a perhaps equally important by-product was the identification of many guidance-minded teachers who made very helpful contributions to the growing program.

At about the middle of each year, counselors were asked to submit names to the guidance director of likely candidates from the teacher ranks. Again, interviews were arranged with these people and employment possibilities in counseling interpreted to them.

Administrative Atmosphere Motivates Development

The foregoing paragraphs have described the mechanics of a counselor manpower development program, one that appears to have been largely successful. It is probably true, however, that the success of the program was due not only to the activities carried out in it but also to two conditions of the administrative framework within which it operated. These two conditions provided the incentives that activated individuals' interest in counseling and willingness to train for it. The first condition was the administration's steadfastness in restricting counselor appointments to trained candidates only. The effect of this policy is obvious.

The second motivating condition was the constant attempt to improve the status of the counselorship, thereby making it a more attractive position to hold. This was accomplished by developing the counselorship from its early position as a minor quasi-administrative post featuring attendance checking and discipline to a truly professional specialty featuring counseling in its best conception. The effect this strategy had in attracting people was obvious in many interviews when the guidance director was told that the candidate was not interested in an attendance checking job but if the counselorship was really going to allow for counseling, there definitely was interest.

Another condition that would have helped attract candidates is that of salary recognition. For the years covered in this report, Akron counselors received no differential. One was established late in the 1958–1959 school year. Whether it is having effect on counselor recruitment is not yet known. The fact that the efforts described above proved worthwhile even in the absence of salary incentive gives some additional evidence of their effectiveness.

TV PROGRAM TO DISCUSS DEMAND FOR COLLEGE ADMISSION

"The College Panic" will be the topic of the "Twentieth Century" TV program to be presented on Sunday, February 12, over CBS-TV. Narrated by Walter Cronkite, well-known TV reporter, the program will deal with the problem of increasing college admissions.

The WISC Profile of Disabled Readers

GEORGE L. KALLOS, JOHN M. GRABOW, and EUGENE A. GUARINO

THE WECHSLER INTELLIGENCE SCALE for Children [4] is one of the two most widely used instruments for measuring the level of intellectual functioning of individual children. A review of the literature reveals that studies of possible additional uses for this instrument, beyond the measurement of intelligence, have been largely confined to areas of clinical psychology. The review by Guertin, Frank, and Rabin [3] of studies aimed at diagnosing organicity or delineating personality components indicates that results have not been promising. Because the WISC has been confronted with the most challenging of diagnostic problems and found of limited usefulness, a tendency to limit continued exploration appears to exist.

Meanwhile, only limited consideration has been given this instrument in areas of educational psychology, areas in which certain important criteria may be more tangible, more readily measured than are personality factors. Of the few such studies, Altus' [1] revealed a fairly distinctive WISC profile for children with severe reading disabilities.

Such a finding should prove of particular interest to reading specialists and to school psychologists. The first group is interested in better understanding the reading process, mental functioning during reading, and efficient therapy for disabled readers. The latter group finds that a very large percentage of the children referred to them are disabled readers and that low reading ability is an especially formidable handicap to adequate social and academic adjustment.

It would seem that the lead provided by Altus should be followed up. The first step should be to see if this profile is characteristic of other sample populations.

The Present Study

The purpose of this study was to analyze the WISC profile of a specified sample of poor readers and to compare the findings with those reported by Altus.

The sample was selected from over 300 children seen at the Reading Center of Michigan State University over a two and one-half year period. The sample consisted of 37 boys, aged 9–0 to 14–0, with Full Scale IQ scores of 90–109. Every subject was reading at least two grades below his age-grade expectation.

The sample was limited to boys for several reasons. It was felt that this refinement should result in restricting extraneous variables which might well affect the WISC profile. Much educational research supports consideration of the developmental patterns of boys and girls separately. Further, many more boys than girls are found to be disabled readers. Reading clinics report a minimum boy-girl ratio of 5 to 1. Ratios of 10 to 1 are not uncommon.

The 9 to 14 age range used by Altus appeared suitable for the present study. This is the period within which the majority of children are referred to reading clinics.

The 90–109 so-called "average" IQ score range was selected to reduce possible confusion with patterns which may be more typical of the extreme groups. Children of average intelligence might further be expected to be reading at their age-grade level rather than below or above that level.

No attempt will be made here to define "reading ability." Experience indicates that the vast majority of children in the 9 to 14 age range who are truly reading disability cases have particular difficulty in word recognition. That is, they are able to pronounce relatively few words at sight and have limited ability to sound out unfamiliar words.

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Two sub-tests of an individual diagnostic reading test, the Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty [2], were selected to measure this more or less mechanical aspect of reading. In the Word Recognition test, words of a graded series are flashed one at a time for the subject to pronounce. In Word Analysis, the subject is permitted to examine closely words he had missed when flashed. Again he is given credit for words he can pronounce. The index of reading ability for purposes of the present study was the mean grade score achieved on these two tests using the Durrell index tables.

A boy was judged to be a reading disability case if his index of reading ability fell two years or more below his age-grade. It was found necessary to disregard a boy's actual grade placement but to use instead his age grade equivalent; that is, the grade level placement that could be expected on the basis of chronological age. Some boys had repeated grades whereas others were found —particularly in rural schools—enrolled in grades above those that are typical for their particular age.

A statistical analysis was made of the distribution of scaled scores for each of the 10 WISC sub-tests. (The Digit Span sub-test had not been administered to all subjects and was therefore eliminated.) The resulting profile was then compared with that reported by Altus.

Altus' subjects consisted of 25 children between the third and eighth grades who had been referred to the guidance department of the Santa Barbara County schools because of severe academic disability. All subjects spoke only English, earned WISC IQ scores of 80 or more, and had been given at least four sub-tests on each WISC scale.

TABLE 1

Means and Standard Deviations of Sub-Test Scaled Scores

Sub-test	*Mean*	*S.D.*
Block design	11.3	2.22
Picture arrangement	10.7	2.11
Object assembly	10.7	2.28
Picture completion	10.2	3.15
Vocabulary	9.6	2.03
Comprehension	9.6	2.36
Similarities	9.5	2.09
Arithmetic	9.3	2.47
Coding	9.0	2.38
Information	8.5	1.58

One girl was included in the sample. All subjects were reading two years or more below grade level. Altus' examination of the group mean scaled scores revealed that Coding and Arithmetic were significantly lower than Vocabulary, Digit Span, Picture Completion, Object Assembly, and Picture Arrangement at the one per cent level of confidence. The Information sub-test was significantly lower than Picture Completion at the one per cent level of confidence.

Findings

No diagnostically significant difference between Verbal and Performance IQ's was found for the present group. The mean Verbal, Performance, and Full Scale IQ's were 95.9, 193.0, and 99.2, respectively. The mean reading retardation was 3.1 grades; the range was 2.0 to 5.3 grades (Table 1).

Statistical comparison of sub-test scaled score means revealed several differences significant at the 0.01 confidence level. Block Design was significantly higher than six other sub-tests. Information, Coding, and

TABLE 2

Pairs of Sub-tests for Which Scaled Score Means Were Significantly Different at the 0.01 Level

	Low Sub-Tests					
High Sub-tests	*Vocabulary*	*Comprehension*	*Similarities*	*Arithmetic*	*Coding*	*Information*
Block design	X	X	X	X	X	X
Picture arrangement				X	X	X
Object assembly					X	X
Picture completion					X	X
Vocabulary						X

Arithmetic were significantly lower than at least two other sub-tests (TABLE 2).

The profiles resulting from the present study and from Altus' study provide an interesting comparison (see FIGURE 1). Variations in sub-test patterns did not prove statistically significant although the difference between Block Design scores approached significance. This was the highest sub-test score in the present study but a very average score as reported by Altus. Much smaller differences were found between other sub-test means.

Implications and Suggestions

1. Analysis of the individual's WISC pattern may have diagnostic value for predicting reading disability. A low Coding score, especially when compared with other performance sub-tests, appears to be characteristic. A low Arithmetic or Information score or a high Block Design score would tend to confirm the diagnosis.

2. Retarded development of motor-visual skills, such as those involved in Coding, may be a primary cause of reading disability.

3. The relatively low Information and Arithmetic scores may reflect variables in the home and school environment which promote reading disability.

4. The high Block Design score found in the present study deserves further investigation.

5. A longitudinal study is warranted to determine the predictive value of this sub-test pattern. A group of early elementary children should be tested and followed through later elementary grades. Planning for such a study is being developed.

References

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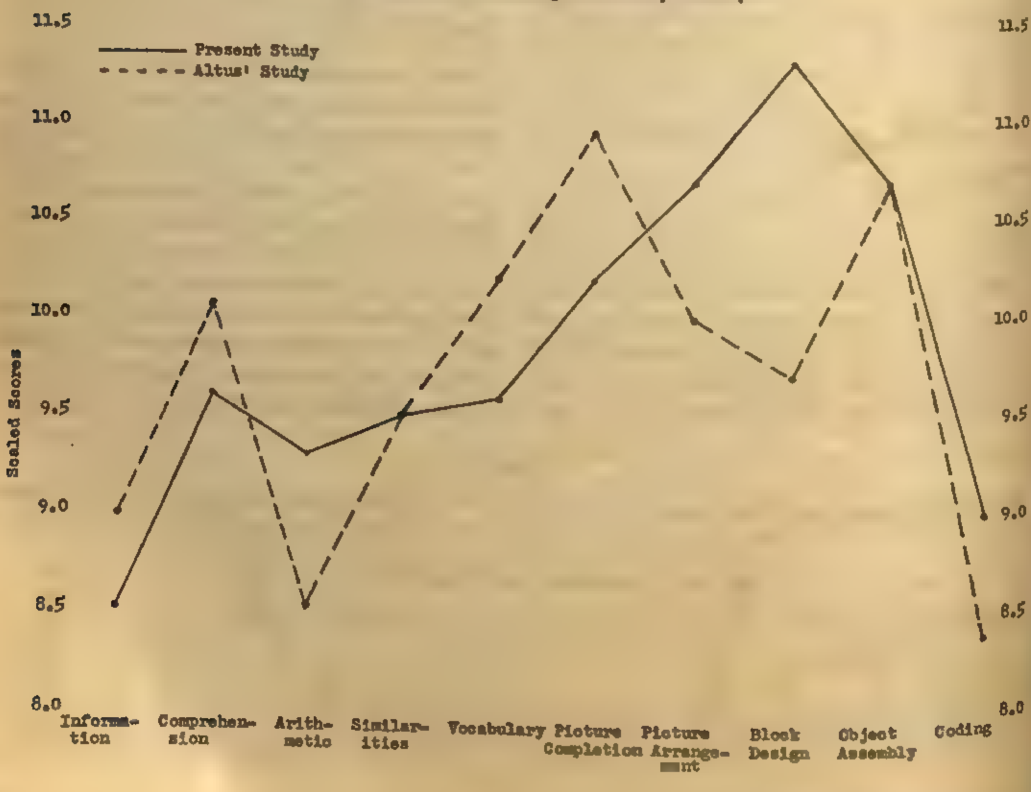
FIGURE 1

WISC Profiles of Reading Disability Groups



Preliminary Program—1961 Convention

AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION

March 27–30, 1961, Denver Hilton Hotel, Denver, Colo.

Theme: Man, Mountains and Moons

Program Note: This program announcement is presented in one continuous chronological listing of committee and content meetings. The names of chairmen, speakers, participants, and/or discussants are incomplete and subject to change. All the content sessions will be held in the Convention Hotel.

Pre-Convention Meetings

SATURDAY MORNING, MARCH 25

9:00– 5:00 **APGA Executive Committee**
NVGA Board of Trustees
Catholic Counselors, Loretto Heights College

SATURDAY EVENING, MARCH 25

7:00–10:00 **APGA Executive Council**

SUNDAY MORNING, MARCH 26

9:00– 4:30 **APGA Executive Council**
Catholic Counselors, Loretto Heights College
VA VR&E Workshop: Family Impact on Attitudes of Adolescents Regarding Vocational Choice
John A. Atkinson, Chairman; Hugh M. Bell, Consultant

11:30–12:45 **Luncheon Meeting: Board of Directors of City Directors of Guidance of Large-City School Systems**
Margaret J. Gilkey

SUNDAY AFTERNOON, MARCH 26

1:30– 3:00 **City Directors of Guidance of Large-City School Systems**
Margaret J. Gilkey, Maurine Rosch

3:00– 5:00 **ASCA Old and New Program Committees**
APGA Evaluation Committee Meetings

3:00– 5:00	**APGA International Relations Committee—Orientation for International Visitors**
3:00–11:00	**ACPA ACPA Room—Coffee and Greetings**
5:00– 9:00	**ASCA Board of Governors** **NAGSCT Executive Council** **APGA Placement Committee** **ACPA Executive Committee**

SUNDAY EVENING, MARCH 26

6:00– 9:00	**SPATE Executive Committee**
7:00– 8:30	**DRC Executive Committee**
7:30– 9:30	**City Directors of Guidance of Large-City School Systems** Margaret J. Gilkey, Maurine Rosch
8:00– 9:30	**APGA Koshare Indian Dancers** to be followed by reception for First-time Convention Attenders and International Visitors
8:30–10:30	**ACPA Membership Committee** **ACPA 1962 Program Committee** **ACPA College Counseling Center Directors** **ACPA Commission on Student Personnel Monographs**

General Program

MONDAY MORNING, MARCH 27

7:30– 9:15	**ASCA Board of Governors Meeting** Carl O. Peets, President **VA VR & E Personnel Session** Joseph Samler, Chairman
8:00– 9:15	**NAGSCT Executive Council** Don D. Twiford, President **Recorders for the Day—Coffee Hour** George L. Keppers, Chairman **ASCA 1962 Program Committee Meeting** Claude Cunningham, Chairman
9:30–11:50	**Opening General Session** Daniel D. Feder Keynote Address: President O. Meredith Wilson, University of Minnesota

MONDAY AFTERNOON, MARCH 27

12:00– 2:50	**ASCA Luncheon and Business Meeting** Elizabeth M. Drews, Carl O. Peets **ACPA Luncheon and Business Meeting** Kathryn L. Hopwood, William G. Craig
1:30	**Continuous Film Showing Program throughout Convention,** sponsored by DRC
1:30– 2:50	**NVGA Delegate Assembly** C. Winfield Scott, President

1:30– 2:50 **NAGSCT Business Meeting**
Don D. Twiford
SPATE Business Meeting
William E. Truax, Jr.
DRC Business Meeting
William M. Usdane, Chairman

3:00– 4:20 **Counselor Certification and Interstate Reciprocity**
George Weigel, Carroll H. Miller, Virginia Bailard, C. Harold McCully
Implications of Automatic Data Processing for Secondary School Guidance Program Operation and Evaluation
Arno Luker, Murray Tondow, John Dobbin, Alvin Grossman
Student Participation in and Responsibility for College Orientation Programming
Elmer Meyer, Jr., Lester Brailey, Ann McNamara, Donald Zander
The Changing Role of the College Fraternity and Sorority
Robert Etheridge, Donald Mallett, Doris Seward, Walter Weir
Orientation Programs in Government Agencies
Lawrence C. Bangs, Raymond A. Ehrle
The School Counselor and His Relationship to the Juvenile Court Problem
Carl Slatt, Hon. Philip Gilliam, Chester D. Poremba, Edna Magnusson
Visiting Teacher Services and Their Role in the Guidance Program
Helen F. Sharp, Sarah Leiter, Mildred Sikkema, Ila Fern Warren, Eleanor D. Hawks
The Teacher in Guidance and Counseling of Underachievers
C. H. Patterson, R. T. Cave, William Kir-Stimon
Symposium: Administrative Problems Related to Student Personnel Worker Selection and Education
Daniel J. Sorrells, Jack Shaw, James E. Foy
Counseling Women for Their Dichotomous Life Patterns
Kate H. Mueller, Eugene Dawson, Eleanor Steele, Eunice Hilton
Are We Preparing Women for the Space Age?
Alva C. Cooper, Ethel Alprnfels
APGA State Membership Coordinators
George W. Murphy, Chairman

3:00– 5:00 **Inter-Association Committee AACRAO, NASPA, ACPA, NAWDC**
William Adams, Chairman
Symposium: The Unmotivated Client
Howard Mausner, Hazel Barnes, William Gellman, Daniel Sinick, Shalom Vineberg

4:30– 5:50 **Conversation Social Hour**
ACPA, NVGA, SPATE, DRC, NAGSCT, ASCA

MONDAY EVENING, MARCH 27

7:30– 9:30 **The Outlook for Guidance Today: A Symposium on Problems of Practice, Theory, and Strategy**
Robert H. Mathewson, Arthur A. Hitchcock, David V. Tiedeman, Leona E. Tyler, Elizabeth M. Drews, Martin Hamburger, Elizabeth Ewell

8:00– 9:30 **Counselor Needs and the Counseling Process**
Lyle L. Miller, Reed Merrill, William Cottle, Guy Ronzaglia
Counseling for Minority Groups in Secondary Schools
Leland H. McCormick, Edward Hascall, Elma Hurt

8:00– 9:30	**Vocational Counseling of the Adolescent: Diagnosis or Exploration and Development** Eli Cohen, Frank Wellman **The Values of High School Students** Daniel Langston, David Mallery, Elsie Bundy **Implications of Superior Student Programs for Student Personnel Work** W. P. Shofstall, Norman D. Kurland, George W. Burchill, Keith Hertweck, Robert S. Miller **Insights for the Student Personnel Worker from Research in Applied Social Psychology** Arthur Blumberg, Allen Kaynor **Relating Residence Hall Programming to the Educational Objectives of the University** Daniel Ferber, Elizabeth Greenleaf, Robert Crane, Matthew Stark **Symposium: Approaches to Rehabilitation of Psychiatric Patients within the NP Hospital** Frank V. Touchstone, Max Bacon, George Katz, Kennon F. McCormick, Priscilla Meyer, Arthur H. Sorenson **See Hear Now—Audio-Visual Aids Brought Up To Date** Wilfrid E. Belleau, Calvin Evans, Nick J. Topetzes, Daniel Sinick, M. Arline Albright, Betty Ellis **Group Methods of Presenting Occupational Information in High Schools** George Favareau, Robert Hoppock **Research and Gifted Youth** John Ivanoff, Merville Shaw, Len Miller, Robert DeHaan
8:15–10:30	**APGA Assembly** Daniel D. Feder, Arthur A. Hitchcock
9:30–10:50	**ASCA Membership Committee** Kenneth Parker, Chairman

TUESDAY MORNING, MARCH 28

7:30– 8:30	**Committee on Counselor Preparation and Standards** George O. McClary **Recorders for the Day—Coffee Hour** George Keppers, Chairman
8:00– 8:50	**Guidance Information Review Service** Richard M. Rundquist, Chairman
8:30– 9:20	Address: Kenneth Holland, President, International Institute for Education
9:30–10:40	**NAGSCT Executive Council** Don D. Twiford **Orientation of Elementary School Students to the Junior High School** Christine Govoni, James Brinkopf, John Reeves, Winifred A. Decker, Donald F. Hewson **Empathy in Counseling** Justin E. Harlow, Arnold Buchheimer, Walter Lifton, Leonard Cottrell, Jr. **Community Programs Which Are Mobilizing for the Placement and Job Adjustment of Young Workers** Eli Cohen, Mary Tuttle

9:30–10:40 **Psychological Assessment and Individual Guidance**
Roger E. Richards, Chairman
The Development, Organization, and Administration of a Guidance Program in a New High School
George O. McClary, Frank S. D'Aguila, John V. Orion, William H. Atkins, Jane H. McCafferty, Robert Withey
Inter-Association Committee AACRAO, NASPA, ACPA, & NAWDC
William F. Adams, Chairman

10:50–12:00 **Symposium: Guidance Abroad—Ceylon, India, Israel, & Africa**
F. Chandler Young, Milton E. Hahn, Frank M. Fletcher, Jr., Dorothy Lipp, Raymond Waldkoetter
A Demonstration and Discussion of Human (Interpersonal) Relations for College Student Personnel Workers
Bernard Black, James Coffee, Frances DeLisle, Maryann Ehrhardt, Claire Fulcher, Raymond Gale, Charles Glotzbach, Elizabeth Greenleaf, George E. Hill, Lurline M. Lee, Charles W. McCracken, C. H. Ruedisili, Miriam A. Shelden, Mary Jane Stevenson, William McK. Wright
Skilled Worker—Outlook, Education, Training, and Counseling
Russell K. Britton, Seymour L. Wolfbein, John P. Walsh, Robert A. Grahams, Alfred F. Wickman, Howard Rosen
Symposium: Supervision of Rehabilitation Counseling Trainees in Field Placement, a Coordinated Training and Research Program
William M. Usdane, Mildred Edmondson, Shepard A. Insel, Donald J. Strong
Recent Trends in the Development of Evening College Personnel Programs
Ralph C. Kendall, William M. Suttles, Martha Farmer, John Dyer, Dorothy Wells, Irving Slade
The Contributions of Psychological Theory to the Counseling Process
Winifred Horrocks, Victor C. Raimy, Edward J. Shoben
New Directions in Testing
Gordon Collister, John Dobbins, Carl Bereiter, Alexander G. Wesman
The Foreign Student: Religious and Other Indoctrination Versus Cultural Orientation
William H. Allaway, Forrest G. Moore, J. Benjamin Schmoker, Robert L. Blair, Norman Brandt

10:55–12:00 **Guidance Leadership as a Means of School Upgrading**
Loren Benson, Ronald A. Ruble, David Segel, John Baca, Carl Walker, Mark E. McCartan
The Nature of Guidance in Junior High School
E. F. Voris, Harold Cottingham
Progress Report of National Committee on Counselor Education Standards
Robert Stripling and Members of Committee

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, MARCH 28

12:00– 1:30 **DRC Luncheon**
Lloyd Lofquist, Chairman; James Garrett, Speaker
NAGSCT Luncheon
Herman Peters, Don D. Twiford
Directors of Guidance Centers Luncheon

1:30– 2:50 **APGA Assembly**

1:30– 2:50 **Employment of Older Workers—Three Viewpoints: Older Worker, Labor Leader, and Physician**
H. Paul Messmer, Edward B. Wilcox, R. C. Anderson, John Zarit, Edith A. Verant
Graduates' Perceptions of Their Student Personnel Training Programs
Fred Proff, Carolyn McCann, Edward McGuire, Jane Moorman, Clyde Parker, Ted Landsman
Student Personnel Work in Junior Colleges
Eugene Dawson, Leland L. Medsker, Thomas B. Merson
Some Explorations of a Theory of Vocational Choice and Adjustment
C. H. Patterson, John L. Holland, Henry Borow, Stanley Segal
Research Findings Concerning Certain Characteristics of Students in Education
Clarence Mahler, William H. Edison, Roger E. Wilk
NVGA Section for the Gifted—Business Meeting
Joseph L. French, Chairman
NVGA Section on Occupational and Educational Information—Business Meeting
Sol Swerdloff, Chairman
Directors of Guidance Centers—NVGA Interest Group, Business Meeting
Justin E. Harlow, Chairman
The Guidance and Motivation of Superior and Talented Students—A Regional Project
J. Ned Bryan, Harold Mack, Ruth Ebersole, Olga Nelson, Clayton L. Bennett

1:30– 2:50 **The Student Personnel Worker as an Educator**
Esther Lloyd-Jones, Helen E. Clark, George Changaris, Ferd D. Reddell

1:30– 4:50 **Tour: National Jewish Rehabilitation Center**
Symposium: Total Rehabilitation
Martin Nacman, Sidney H. Dressler, Charles L. Roberts, Morton Zivan

3:00– 4:20 **ACPA Executive Committee**
Kathryn Hopwood
Counseling and Moral Values
Clarence Mahler, Dennis L. Trueblood, Dorothy M. Sherman
Panel: Recommended Legislation to Succeed NDEA—Title V
Harold Mahoney, George E. Hill, Gail Farwell, Dean L. Hummel
Experiments in Leadership Training for the College Campus
William Pruitt, William Dyer, Diane Barkley, Clifford Gardner, Phillip Greenwalt, Dennis W. Tippets
The Job Adjustment Problems of Young Workers in the Next Decade
Marguerite H. Coleman, Seymour Wolfbein, Paul Goodman, Morris Krugman, E. Lloyd Merrill
The School Counselor and His Relationship to the State Employment Commission in the Use of the GATB
Gunnar Wahlquist, Alfred Stark, Eugene Maffeo, Ruth Hahn, Carl Slatt, Arthur Thomas
Professional Guidance Programs Which Promote Better Guidance Training for the Classroom Teachers
Eugene D. Koplitz, John W. M. Rothney, William Mueller, Perry Rockwell

3:00– 4:20 **Marriage Counseling as a Student Personnel Service**
Jane Berry, Raymond Lowe, Eleanor Luckey, Charles F. Warnath
Inter-Association Committee AACRAO, NASPA, ACPA, & NAWDC
William F. Adams, Chairman
The Use of Tests in Counseling Gifted Adolescents
Joseph L. French, George K. Bennett, Warren Findley, G. Frederic Kuder, Harold Miller
Relationship of Education Objectives, Psychological and Guidance Services in the Elementary School
Rosalie Waltz, J. W. Yates, Robert A. Apostal
The Role of the Secondary School Teacher in Guidance for the Space Age
Emma Williams, Virginia Love, Elizabeth Berry, Anne M. Fesenmaier
NVGA Young Workers Section, Business Meeting
Evelyn Murray, Chairman
Joint Business Meeting, NVGA Section on Group Methods of Presenting Occupational Information and the Academy of Teachers of Occupational Information
Edward R. Cuony, Robert Hoppock, Lawrence R. Malnig

4:45– 5:45 **Conversational Social Hour**
ACPA Social Hour
Ohio State University
Columbia University, Teachers College

TUESDAY EVENING, MARCH 28

6:30– 9:30 **APGA Banquet and Presidential Report**
Dugald S. Arbuckle, Daniel D. Feder, Arthur A. Hitchcock

Following Banquet **ACPA 1962 Program Committee**
City Directors of Counseling
ACPA Membership Committee
Commission on Student Personnel Monographs
NVGA Public Relations Committee—Business Meeting
Julia Alsberg, Chairman
NVGA Rural Guidance Interest Group—Business Meeting
Harold Watson, Chairman
Junior College Personnel Workers
NVGA Women's Interest Group—Business Meeting
Alva C. Çooper, Chairman
Association of College and University Religious Advisers
College Counseling Center Directors
College Student Personnel Training Program Directors

WEDNESDAY MORNING, MARCH 29

7:30– 8:50 **Recorders for the Day—Coffee Hour**
George L. Keppers, Chairman

7:30–10:20 **SPATE Breakfast and Business Meeting**
William E. Truax, Jr., President

8:00– 8:50 **Editorial Board—Vocational Guidance Quarterly**
Barbara Kirk

8:30– 9:20 **I. Societal Change, Psychological Change, and Changing American Schools**
C. Gilbert Wrenn

9:30–10:40 **Some Observations on the Non-Conforming Student**
William Galeota, Ruth Allee, Lewis Barbato, Frederick Brown
NVGA Delegate Assembly
C. Winfield Scott, President
ASCA Business Meeting
Carl O. Peets, President
ACPA Business Meeting
Kathryn Hopwood, President
DRC Business Meeting
Lloyd H. Lofquist, Chairman
NAGSCT Business Meeting
Don D. Twiford, President
High School and College Reading Workshop
Academy of Teachers of Occupational Information
Institute Limitations on College Counseling Services
Barbara Kirk, Robert Callis, Glen Nygreen, George B. Smith
Staff Communication and Decision Making
Laurine Fitzgerald, George Vardaman, Clifford Huston, Robert H. Shaffer
Evaluation Session for International Visitors
Gordon J. Klopf

10:50–12:00 **Coordinated Services: What Should We Expect**
Basil B. Emerson, Earl H. Hanson, Roy A. Hinderman, K. R. MacCalman, Carson V. Ryan, Raymond Patouillet, Jules Fillips
Assessment of Student Financial Needs
Paul MacMinn, Roland Green, Stanley Gross, Rexford Moon
Reading Workshop
The Coordination of Pupil Personnel Services within a School System
James Winfrey, Willis Dugan, George A. Favareau
Evaluation of NDEA Counseling and Guidance Institutes in Regard to the Future Direction of Training Public School Counselors
Robert Swan, Gordon Klopf, Nancy K. Cohen, Charles Morris, Jean P. Jordaan, Donald A. Benschoter
Creativity: Identification and Promotion in Teacher Education Programs
Arno H. Luker, E. Paul Torrance
Insights for the Student Personnel Worker from Research in Sociology
Lester N. Downing, Raymond Mack, C. Jay Skidmore
Student Personnel's Responsibility for Student Expression on Social Issues
W. W. Blaesser, E. G. Williamson, Byron Atkinson, Martin Harvey, Clifford Huston, Richard Rettig
Placement Procedures and Job Satisfaction
Robert Hoppock, Floyd Sherman, Harold K. Montross, Harry C. Triandis, Alan Robinson, Emily Chervenik
Guidance in the Aloha State
Robert Williams, Francis E. Clark
Development of a Community Plan for the Mentally Retarded
Melville J. Appell
White House Conference on the Aging
Helen Randall

12:00– 1:20 **NVGA Luncheon**
Helen Wood (Speaker to be announced)

1:30– 2:50 **APGA Assembly**
The Implications of National Testing Programs
Donald Hoyt, Paul Dressel, S. A. Kendrick, Ted McCarrel
Experiments in Counseling for Academic Adjustment
Robert Colver, Rudolph Chuckek, DWane R. Collins, Henry Weitz, E. Gordon Collister
Symposium: Guidance at the County Level
J. David O'Dea, Donald Diffenbaugh, Douglas Bowman
Future Staffing of Residence Halls
Harold C. Riker, W. Max Wise, John C. Pyper, Miriam Shelden
Insights for the Teacher and Student Personnel Worker from Research and New Program Developments in Higher Education
Samuel Baskin, Robert H. Beezer, Paul Heist, Jonathan King
Problems, Procedures, and Results in Research on Superior Students
John M. Ivanoff, John W. M. Rothney, James J. Cody, Joseph A. Kalista, Harvey Cromett, Perry J. Rockwell
Methods & Techniques in Interpreting Test Data to Parents and Students in the Junior High School
Roland Larson, Bernice Bouldin, George W. Murphy, Myrtle Collins
Group Methods of Presenting Occupational Information in Elementary and Junior High Schools
George A. Favareau, Robert Stripling

1:30– 4:20 **Research in the Field of Counseling in Elementary and Secondary Education**
Edward Landy, C. K. Knox, Donald H. Blocher, J. David O'Dea, C. Grafton Kemp, E. Eleanor Scott
Symposium: The Recruitment and Selection of Students for Rehabilitation Counselor Preparation
Kenneth Hylbert, Cecile M. Hillyer, Adrian Levy, Cecil H. Patterson

3:00– 4:20 **The Comprehensive Counseling Program for Higher Education**
Melvene D. Hardee, Howard Johnshoy, Charles McCracken, Max Raines, Eugene Shepard, Rev. Joseph Voor, Theda Hagenah, Clyde Parker
Identification of Unsuitable Teacher Trainees
Beatrice Heimerl, Fred Proff, Thomas Magoon
Is the NDEA Good for Guidance in Rural Schools?
James C. Hayes
Recent Research with the California Psychological Inventory
John D. Black, Leonard Goodstein, Harrison G. Gough, Martin Weissman
Trends in Legal Responsibilities of the Student Personnel Worker
Lyle D. Schmidt, Clarence Bakken, Carl Grip
Occupational and Educational Information: Recent Findings
Sol Swerdloff, Cora E. Taylor, Leon Lewis, Laure M. Sharp, James D. Cowhig, Howard Rosen
The School Administrator—The Catalyst for Guidance
Franklin R. Zeran, Raymond N. Hatch, Harry Smallenburg, Kenneth E. Oberholtzer, Shirley Newman

3:00– 4:20 **Recent Developments in Cooperative School—Employment Service Placement Programs**
Evelyn Murray, Anne Voldez, Alex Altheim, Louise Griffith, Rose Nathenson
Group Methods of Presenting Occupational Information in Colleges
Lawrence R. Malnig
APGA Branch Presidents Workshop
Emerson Coyle, Chairman

4:45– 5:45 **Conversational Social Hour—ACPA, ASCA, DRC, NAGSCT, NVGA, SPATE**

WEDNESDAY EVENING, MARCH 29

5:30– 7:00 **DRC Executive Committee**
Lloyd H. Lofquist, Chairman
NAGSCT Executive Committee
Don D. Twiford, President

8:00– 9:20 **II. Report to the Nation: A Projection of the Guidance Function in American Schools**
C. Gilbert Wrenn

THURSDAY MORNING, MARCH 30

7:30– 8:50 **Recorders for the Day—Coffee Hour**
George L. Keppers, Chairman

8:00– 8:50 **NVGA Program Committee**
Helen Wood, President-elect

9:00–10:20 **The Role and the Future of Therapeutic Counseling within a Public School**
Anna Davis, William Jamison, Stanley W. Caplan, Gilbert D. Moore, Emily Leedy
Student Personnel in the Next 15 Years
Donald W. Robinson, W. W. Blaesser, Margaret R. Smith, C. Gilbert Wrenn
Perception of Discipline
Laurine Fitzgerald, Dan J. Sillers, E. G. Williamson
Whither NVGA?
Willis E. Dugan, William Cottle, Paul C. Polmantier, Arthur B. Bennett, John Joyce
The Scope of Elementary School Guidance
Mauryne Dailey, Anna Meeks, Ruby Morris
The Admissions Office as a Central Data-Gathering Agency
Carl G. Fahrbach, C. William Reiley
Preparing Student Organizations for Financial Responsibility
Paul Bloland, Joseph W. Crenshaw, Ray L. Hilsenhoff, Harold P. Strom

9:00–11:50 **Papers: Research Studies in Rehabilitation**
Helen Roehlke, Robert W. Titley, Richard T. Sidwell, James Selkin, Cecil H. Patterson
In-Service Training Programs for Student Personnel Workers
William Butler, John W. Truitt, Arthur McCartan
ACPA Executive Committee
Kathryn Hopwood

10:30–11:50 **Problems in Student Personnel Work** (SPATE Newsletter signups for particular areas, *e.g.*, counseling, testing, admissions, activities, selective retention)

Planning Student Housing for the Future
William Guthrie, Harold C. Riker, Arthur Kiendl

The Mechanics Necessary to Preserve the Creative Arts in Education
John T. Roberts, Edwin E. Stein, Harold R. Keables

Counseling Students for Careers in Law
Alvin L. Grant, Walter Sheil, Bethuel M. Webster

New Frontiers in Counseling with Exceptional Children
Evelyn Milam, Robert W. Collett, Margaret Varney

Counseling for Church Vocations
Frank L. Sievers, Harold F. Carr, J. Dale Weaver

ASCA Board of Governors Meeting
George W. Murphy

Pre-College Differential Prediction
William Gerler, August T. Dvorak, J. C. Clevenger, Carl Fahrbach

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, MARCH 30

12:00– 2:50 **Program Committee Luncheon, 1961 and 1962—Division Program Chairmen**
Kenneth B. Ashcraft

1:00– 2:00 **APGA New Members to 1961–1962 Assembly**

1:30– 4:30 **USES Workshop for State Employment Service Counseling Supervisors**
Abraham Stahler, Chairman

2:00– 3:00 **APGA New Members of Executive Council for 1961–1962**

THURSDAY EVENING, MARCH 30

8:00–10:30 **ACPA Executive Committee**
Kathryn Hopwood

FRIDAY, MARCH 31

9:00– 4:30 **USES Workshop for State Employment Service Counseling Supervisors**
Abraham Stahler, Chairman

Special Meal Functions

(Partial List)

Board of Directors, City	Sunday, 26th
Directors of Guidance	11:30 A.M.–3:00 P.M.
Luncheon and Business	
New Mexico PGA	Tuesday, 28th
Breakfast	7:30–8:30 A.M.
Minnesota Breakfast	Tuesday, 28th
Breakfast	7:30–8:30 A.M.
G. E. Fellows	Tuesday, 28th
Breakfast	7:50–8:30 A.M.
University of Denver	Tuesday, 28th
Breakfast	7:30–8:30 A.M.
Southern College PA	Tuesday, 28th
Breakfast	7:30–8:30 A.M.
Michigan GPA	Tuesday, 28th
Breakfast	7:30–8:30 A.M.
Convention Recorders	27th through 30th
Coffee and Rolls	7:30–8:50 A.M.
Directors of Guidance Centers	Tuesday, 28th
Luncheon and Business	12:00–2:50 P.M.
California PGA	Wednesday, 29th
Breakfast	7:30–8:50 A.M.
Danforth Seminar	Wednesday, 29th
Breakfast	7:30–8:50 A.M.
Boston University PGA	Wednesday, 29th
Breakfast	7:30–8:50 A.M.

TRENDS IN COLLEGE STUDENTS' GRADES

MARGARET B. FISHER

N REASSURING students worried about their grades in college, faculty advisers and ounselors sometimes fall back on a tradi-ional rule of thumb. The rule holds that fter the freshman year, when college grades ometimes are lower than high school rades, the grade-point average may be ex-ected to improve gradually throughout the est of the undergraduate years—barring ac-idents. For some students, this common-nse rule is reassuring. But most rules of humb should periodically be checked gainst experience, to make sure that they re not downright misleading.

rocedure

The rule can be stated in forms suitable r logical analysis. Four hypotheses were rmulated, representing forms in which the ule seemed most likely to be understood by student or counselor.

1. The annual grade-point average for an ntire class in college will increase consist-ntly by relatively small degrees from one ear to the next.

2. The majority of students continuing a given class in college will earn each year grade-point average slightly higher than at for the preceding year.

3. The probability that the annual grade-int average of a given student will in-ase from one year to the next is greater n 50 per cent and approaches 100 per t.

. Variations in grade-point averages are uch a low order of magnitude (below 0.5 de points), in the majority of cases, that ir net effect over three or more years is to intain the grade-point average for an en-class and for the majority of its mem-s at or slightly above the average earned he freshman year.

In order to determine to what extent, and in what form, if any, the rule can be applied to students at Hampton Institute, the trends in grade-point averages of the class of 1960 were checked against the trends anticipated according to the four hypotheses. The class of 1960 was chosen because it has been selected on the basis of high school experience, test scores, and other criteria as a typical class at the College for use in a series of longitudinal studies of factors affecting achievement. Although only three annual grade-point averages were available for this class, they served to indicate trends in grades.

Grade-point averages (GPA) are calculated on a 4-point system. For purposes of this study, annual (two-semester) GPA's for the regular academic year were employed, rather than cumulative averages; and these were based exclusively on grades in regular-session courses taken at Hampton Institute.

Findings

Hypothesis 1. The first form of the hypothesis is clearly supported by common sense. One would logically conclude that the GPA for a given class would increase each year, as the result of eliminating students with the lowest averages through academic disqualification. This conclusion was supported by data for the class of 1960, its median annual GPA increasing each year from June, 1957, through June, 1959, as shown in TABLE 1. Chi-square values of the difference between 1957–1958 GPA's and between 1958–1959 GPA's showed the effect of academic disqualification (see TABLE 2). There was a substantial increase in June, 1958, over June, 1957, GPA's; the X^2 value was very large and was significant at the 0.01 level of confidence. The increase in GPA from June, 1958, to June, 1959, was of a

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TABLE 1

Annual Grade-Point Averages for Students Entering Hampton Institute as Freshmen in September, 1956

Academic Year	*Median Annual GPA (As of June)*
1956–1957	1.970
1957–1958	2.360
1958–1959	2.460

TABLE 2

Degrees of Difference (Chi-Square) between GPA's in Consecutive Years for Students Entering Hampton Institute as Freshmen in September, 1956

Grades as of June Compared for Years	X^2	*p*	*df*
1957–1958	20.41	0.01	1
1958–1959	2.59	0.20	1

lower order of magnitude; the X^2 value was substantially smaller and at a lower level of confidence, 0.20.

From these results, it was apparent that improvement in GPA for the class might be altogether the effect of eliminating the least effective students with the lowest averages. To determine whether this were the case, GPA's for continuing students only were tabulated, including only students continuously in attendance from September, 1956, through February, 1960, a total of 163 individuals.

The increase in median annual GPA for continuing students from 1957 to 1958 (TABLE 3) was smaller than that for the entire class; and the 1959 GPA showed a minute decrease from 1958. The small X^2 value for GPA's of continuing students 1957/1958 was at the same level of confidence as that for the entire class for 1958/1959. The X^2 value for GPA's of 1958/1959 was to all intents and purposes null. Neither X^2 value could be considered significant.

When the effect of academic disqualification was eliminated, the magnitude of the differences in GPA's for consecutive years was reduced to the point of insignificance. Accordingly, the major part of the improvement in class GPA appeared to be attributable to the selection of better students as continuing members of the class. The slight improvement that continuing students registered in the sophomore year was maintained but not increased in the junior year.

Therefore, it must be concluded that data for the class of 1960 do not support the hypothesis. When the effect of disqualifications was eliminated, the class did not show a consistent increase in GPA in each of three consecutive years. The apparent increase in annual GPA for the class from one year to the next appeared largely as the effect of administrative action.

Hypothesis 2. The second hypothesis derived from the rule of thumb assumes that the experience of the class as a whole is congruent with the experience of all or a majority of its members. While some increases and decreases in GPA would be anticipated, most of the members of the class would be expected to show a consistently rising GPA.

Accordingly, the trends of GPA's for individual continuing students were tabulated in four categories.

1. Downward: consistent decrease in GPA, the third

TABLE 3

Annual Grade-Point Averages of Students Continuously Enrolled in the Class of 1960 at Hampton Institute, September, 1956–June, 1959

Academic Year	*Median Annual GPA (as of June)*
1956–1957	2.353
1957–1958	2.478
1958–1959	2.460

TABLE 4

Degrees of Difference (Chi-Square) between GPA's in Successive Years for Students Continuously Enrolled in the Class of 1960 at Hampton Institute, September, 1956–June, 1959

Grades as of June Compared for Years	X^2	*p*	*df*
1957–1958	2.072	0.20	1
1958–1959	0.048	0.90	1

year lower than the second, which is lower than the first.

2. Upward: consistent increase in GPA, the third higher than the second, which is higher than the first.
3. Decrease-increase: a lower GPA in the second year as compared with the first and third years.
4. Increase-decrease: a higher GPA in the second year as compared with the first and third years.

Where the GPA for a given year showed no increase or decrease from the previous year's level, it was counted as maintaining the trend established in relation to the third annual GPA or as an upward trend if all three GPA's were the same.

As TABLE 5 shows, slightly more than half the continuing students in the class of 1960 showed an irregular pattern of increases and decreases. Less than one-third showed the consistent upward trend in GPA hypothesized; about one-sixth showed a consistent downward trend. These results are consistent with the low level of confidence for chi-squares in TABLES 2 and 3. The second hypothesis was not supported by the data. The consistent upward trend in GPA did not appear in the record of a majority of the members of the class.

However, the assumption that the trends in GPA for the entire class are congruent with trends in GPA for a majority of its members did seem to be substantially supported. A substantial majority (63.2 per cent) of continuing students showed an increase in GPA for 1958 over 1957; and

TABLE 5

Trends in Annual Grade-Point Averages of Students Continuously Enrolled in Hampton Institute, September, 1956–June, 1959

Trend in Annual GPA	*Number*	*%*
1. Downward	29	17.8
2. Upward	48	29.5
3. Decrease-Increase	31	19.0
4. Increase-Decrease	55	33.7
	163	100.0

Per Cent of Students Showing Increases and Decreases in a Given Year

Academic Year	*Increase, %*	*Decrease, %*
1957–1958	63.2	36.8
1958–1959	48.5	51.5

slightly more than half (51.5 per cent) showed a decrease in 1959 as compared with 1958. This pattern corresponded to the slight increase in median GPA for the class in 1958, followed by a minute decrease in 1959.

Hypothesis 3. The third hypothesis restates the second in terms of probabilities. TABLE 5 shows the percentage of students falling in each category, which may be taken as a rough estimate of probability. Contrary to expectation, the probability of a gradual increase in GPA was not very good. The best odds, a little better than 60–40, appeared in the sophomore year. In the junior year, the probable odds were about 50–50, with a slight weighting on the side of a possible decrease in GPA.

The odds for a student showing a downward trend in GPA may be roughly stated as between 1 and 2 chances in 10; for an upward trend, a little less than 3 chances in 10; for an irregular pattern of increase and decrease, a little better than 5 in 10.

The third hypothesis was not supported by the data. Trends were neither clear nor consistent enough to make probability estimates very reliable. And the odds in favor of improvement in GPA might just as well be stated as 50–50 for a given student in any given year, the empirical evidence being no better than theoretical or commonsense estimates in this case.

Hypothesis 4. The fourth hypothesis may be regarded as supported by the data. The variations in GPA were small, and the class GPA for the junior year was higher than that for the freshman year. The difference (decrease) between the second and third years was not significant. To judge from the trends shown in TABLE 5, the difference between GPA's for the second and third years was mainly a matter of the timing in the decrease in GPA which could be expected in one year or another by more than two-thirds of the students. Apparently a slightly higher proportion of students experienced the decrease in the junior year.

Because the class was relatively small, it was possible to tabulate quantitative differences in GPA between two consecutive years, as shown in TABLE 6. As might be antici-

pated, many differences were of a low order of magnitude, tenths or even hundredths of a grade point. There were more increments than decrements. Taking the midpoint of each interval as the net difference represented, the mean increment was 0.385, the mean decrement 0.380. The mean difference, regardless of increase or decrease, was 0.359. The mean *net* increment was 0.051, a figure of no significant order of magnitude.

A difference of 0.50 grade points was arbitrarily taken as representing a significant order of magnitude, because it corresponds to a shift of half a letter grade in a student's average. The mean difference, the mean increment and mean decrement were all significantly below 0.50. Only 27 per cent of the differences amounted to 0.50 grade points or more. It may be concluded that the net effect of increases and decreases in GPA over the three years is a small net increment, as suggested by the hypothesis.

The chances of a student to increase or decrease his annual GPA by half a letter grade (0.50 grade points) or more may be roughly estimated as 1 in 5. 86 students recorded 54 increments and 34 decrements of this order of magnitude. 60 of these students had a cumulative GPA for the three years above the median cumulative GPA of the class (2.23 grade points). Both significant increments and significant decrements thus occurred most frequently among students whose cumulative averages were least likely to be seriously affected by a change in any one year. In particular, their averages being for the most part well above the required C grade, students having decrements in GPA were in most instances unlikely to find the decrease placing their academic standing in jeopardy. A case in point is the student recording the largest decrement, 2.19 grade points, who still had a cumulative GPA above 2.50 in his junior year!

The fourth hypothesis seemed to be substantially supported by the record of the class of 1960. There was no consistency in the trend of annual GPA's upward or downward. Variations were of a relatively low order of magnitude, and their combined effect in most cases was a small net increment over a three-year period. Apparently the GPA in the first year established a general level for grades, both for the class and for the majority of its members. Differences from one year to the next appeared within a narrow range, exceeding 0.50 grade points in only one case out of five.

TABLE 6

Quantitative Changes in GPA for Consecutive Years, for Students Continuously Enrolled in the Class of 1960 at Hampton Institute, September, 1956–June, 1959

Amount of Differences (in tenths of grade-points)	Differences between GPA's for Two Consecutive Years: Number of Increments	Number of Decrements	Net Increment or Decrement by Intervals	Sum of Differences by Intervals
Above 1.00	5	7	−3.50	21.00
0.9–1.00	2	1	0.95	2.85
0.8–0.9	8	1	5.95	7.65
0.7–0.8	8	3	3.75	8.25
0.6–0.7	16	12	2.60	18.20
0.5–0.6	15	10	2.75	13.75
0.4–0.5	21	15	2.70	16.20
0.3–0.4	18	23	−1.75	14.35
0.2–0.3	29	22	1.75	5.25
0.1–0.2	23	18	1.25	6.15
0 –0.1	38	31	0.35	3.45
	183	143	16.80	117.10

Mean Increment = 0.385 Mean Difference = 0.359
Mean Decrement = 0.380 Mean Net Increment = 0.051

The Nature of "Accidents"

The original rule of thumb makes allowance for exceptions, "barring accidents." Records were not sufficiently complete to bear statistical analysis. But among the 86 students recording differences in annual GPA of 0.50 or more, events were known to have concurred with the significant difference in GPA that could ordinarily be expected to affect performance. Most of these could be classified as accidents: serious illness or injury; family crises such as illness, death, or unemployment; and financial crises entailing a heavy outside work load. Others could be regarded as subject to more deliberate choice: marriage; change of major; and major leadership in campus life, for instance.

It is always difficult if not impossible to establish causal relationships between such factors and academic performance. But it did seem reasonable to conclude, because of the frequency of fluctuation in GPA, that "accidents" affecting the grades of this class were so numerous as to constitute a rule in themselves, rather than exceptions to a sound generalization.

Conclusions and Discussion

Assuming that the experience of the class of 1960, as well as the characteristics of its members, can be taken as typical of other classes, the general rule of thumb would not appear to be a very good basis for estimating the probable academic performance of an individual student or of an entire class at the College. The trends in GPA predicted under the rule did not appear in its experience. The predicted upward trend of GPA's was not maintained by the class as a whole or by the majority of its members. The probabilities based on patterns of change in GPA yielded no better than even chances for improvement. The increments outnumbered the decrements, so that a small net increment for the class over a period of three years appeared. But the probability of an increment rather than a decrement in GPA for a given student in the class was little better than 50 per cent and of a significant increment (0.50 or more) about 15 per cent.

Only the fourth hypothesis was supported by the data. Variations of a low order of magnitude producing a small net increase were found. However, this hypothesis omitted the gradual upward trend and the consistency in pattern to be anticipated according to the original rule.

On the basis of the record of students in the class of 1960 at Hampton Institute, assuming that it is a typical class and that significant changes in the characteristics of future classes can be recognized on the basis of available data, the most reasonable generalization about trends in GPA might be as follows.

Grade-point averages for a class and for the majority of its members cannot be expected consistently to follow an upward or downward trend. Differences from one year to the next may be expected to be small; and the net effect of increases and decreases by the senior year may be expected to result in a small increase over the freshman year's average.

The chances of a difference in GPA of 0.50 or more for a given student are about 1 in 5. The chances of steady improvement are about 3 in 10. In any given year there is a 50–50 chance of an increase in GPA, with slightly better odds in the sophomore year, slightly worse odds in the junior year. No student can safely depend on these odds in estimating the probable trend his grades will follow.

Nevertheless, the rule of thumb has certain elements which students should recognize. The trend in achievement is generally upward. In general, grade point averages rise over the college years, even though the gains are modest, compounded of irregular gains and losses. Student expectations have value in motivation only if they are directed toward higher levels of achievement.

Nevertheless, the relationship of the rule to student experience is of doubtful validity. On the whole, if a generalization is needed to help students estimate probable trends in grades, it should be more precisely stated and clearly defined. Counselors and advisers might well check the record in order to devise generalizations that fit their particular college and its constituents better

than the rule of thumb. Data for a typical class might be analyzed as a basis for a useful generalization; better still, an entire college generation might be studied. Useful generalizations should probably be stated as hypotheses, so they could be checked against student experience, and might include the following elements: the probable trend for an entire class; anticipated degrees of difference in GPA for consecutive years; probabilities of increase, decrease, and consistent trends upward or downward; probable net effects of variations in GPA.

It appears advisable to make such generalizations on the basis of a study of student grades at a particular college, rather than to attempt generalizations applicable to most colleges. Differences among colleges make it unlikely that generalizations descriptive of student performance in one would be applicable to another. Colleges earnestly attempt to devise regular, rationally organized patterns of academic work calculated to support consistent achievement. But even these practices vary so widely among institutions as to make generalizations about a number of different colleges appear of doubtful value.

Factors in the life space of students vary even more widely from college to college. And the life space, the total environment and the psycho-social relationships within which students live, includes academic work and campus life but extends far beyond them. The effect of both regular patterns and "accidents" related to students' life space is thus subject to great variation from one college to another.

And it appears likely that factors in the life space, over and above the academic program, may offset any tendencies to consistency resulting from academic practices. The number and nature of known "accidents," the high proportion of fluctuations in annual GPA, and the lack of trends significantly differing from random variation in grades, found in this study, suggest that non-academic factors exercise significant influence on academic achievement. It has been wisely suggested [2] that institutional patterns alone may not serve as adequate guides to estimates of student performance or understanding of student achievement. Certainly the present study indicates that institutional practices in disqualifying underachievers maintain a consistent level of achievement in a given class, but that a rule of thumb based on the resulting upward trend in grades cannot be applied to estimates of the performance of the members of the class. At least one recent study [*1*] indicates that enduring behavior patterns established well before the college years affect achievement and influence the response of students to college life. The present study similarly suggests that random variation in grades points to a wide range of variability in individual responses to a common academic experience.

However, it seems to be worth while to investigate the effects of various factors in the life space of students upon grades and trends in achievement. A great many aspects of student life are common to all students, or a substantial proportion of them: dating and courtship patterns; residence hall living; and the cycles of the college year, for example, may have some general effects within the life space that are related to academic performance. Any factors that could be identified and whose relation to academic achievement could be described systematically might be brought under more effective control in the interest of higher achievement.

Even so, it seems reasonable to assume that even the most carefully planned institutional practices may do little to offset the effect upon achievement of events in a student's life space that are beyond his control. A student would be well advised to prepare to meet both accidents and unexpected opportunities in his college years and to master the tasks which both present to him. Whatever factors prove to affect achievement, it seems safe to predict that their final effect will be subject to the individual student's direction and control.

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Variants of the Psychopathic Personality on the College Scene

BETTY GANZHORN

Most counseling psychologists who work in a college counseling center would agree that the true psychopathic personality is rarely found in the college setting. Palmer [*9*] describes such personalities as individuals who are emotionally immature, irresponsible, aggressive, impulsive, lacking in discretion and long-range goals, asocial, immoral, and chronically out-of-step with society. White [*12, p. 382*] states that such persons ". . . can be described as *acting out* some part of their problems at the expense of others, as taking out their troubles on the world by violating codes and conventions or by leading an irresponsible and useless life." There are several possible but not established explanations for the relative absence of the true psychopath on campus. First, such individuals if they arrive at all would find the collegiate atmosphere restrictive and thus would voluntarily eliminate themselves early in their college careers. Second, their characteristic behavior patterns may lead to serious violations of college rules and regulations so that they come to the prompt attention of administrators. Third, it is likely that they would possess poor motivation for academic achievement. Finally, psychopathic personalities are unlikely to seek assistance from a college counseling center on a voluntary basis.

Even though the true psychopathic personality is seldom found in the college environment, the writer believes that some variants of this personality type or individuals who have tendencies toward psychopathy may exist in a reasonable frequency on the campus. For example, Weinberg [*11*] describes two variants who are likely to be referred to college counseling centers. Before these variants are discussed, it might be helpful to review classification systems for psychopathic disorders in general.

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Controversial Classifications of Psychopathy

There is a great deal of controversy among psychiatrists and psychologists concerning the appropriate classification for psychopathic disorders. White [*12*] believes that a diagnosis of psychopathic personality is often applied when the individual's symptoms cannot be classified under the categories of neurosis, psychosis, or defective intelligence. Thus such a diagnosis is catch basin in nature. Clecky [*1*] has succeeded in presenting a more restricted classification of these disorders. He excludes those individuals who are alcoholics or sexual deviants but otherwise adjusted to society and also persons who are delinquent or criminal but loyal and responsible members of their own subcultural groups. Clecky [*1*] includes as true psychopathic personalities only those individuals who show a consistent inability to follow any regulated and systematic pattern of living.

Sociological theorists such as Gough [*4, pp. 275–276*] prefer to define the psychopathic personality in terms of a characteristic set of attitudes which he lists as follows:

> overevaluation of immediate goals as opposed to remote or deferred ones; unconcern over the rights and privileges of others when recognizing them would interfere with personal satisfaction in any way; impulsive behavior, or apparent incongruity between the strength of stimulus and the magnitude of the response; inability to form deep or persistent attachments to other persons or to

identify in interpersonal relationships; poor judgment and planning in attaining defined goals; apparent lack of anxiety and distress over social maladjustment and unwillingness or inability to consider maladjustment qua maladjustment; a tendency to project blame onto others and to take no responsibility for failures; meaningless prevarication, often about trivial matters in situations where detection is inevitable; almost complete lack of dependability and willingness to assume responsibility; and finally, emotional poverty.

Gough [4] indicates that when these attitudes exist as a *Gestalt* in one individual, there is presumptive evidence of a psychopathic personality. Such an individual may or may not commit illegal acts or be confined to a mental hospital.

Weinberg [*11, p. 263*], who combines sociology and social psychology in an analysis of the psychopathic personality, describes four types of acting out disorders which he lists as follows: "(1) the 'true' psychopath, (2) the acting-out neurotic, (3) the self-centered indulged personality, and (4) the subcultural deviant." In terms of Weinberg's [*11*] symptomatology, it would seem likely that "the acting-out neurotic" and "the self-centered indulged personality" would be found in a much higher frequency in the college population than either "the 'true' psychopath" or "the subcultural deviant."

One Variant of the Psychopathic Disorders

According to Weinberg [*11*], "the acting-out neurotic" attempts to handle his anxiety by exhibiting hostility and aggressive behavior toward others. While such a neurotic can establish some interpersonal relationships with other individuals, he seems to feel alone and therefore is overly concerned about himself. These feelings probably stem from his extreme hostility toward people. On the other hand, "the acting-out neurotic" has guilt feelings and may want to be punished for his behavior at least on an unconscious level. Thus he often appears to be operating in a self-defeating manner. He feels inadequate and indulges in a great deal of self-reproach which contributes to an impoverished self-concept. Weinberg [*11*] points out several additional characteristics of "the acting-out neurotic." For example, such an individual seems to be inconsistent, highly impulsive, imprudent, and chronically in trouble. He is also unable or unwilling to learn from experience and usually cannot delay immediate satisfactions for more remote goals. Finally, "the acting-out neurotic" seems incapable of demonstrating responsible, dependable, and mature behavior.

"The Acting-Out Neurotic" in the College Community

In the college environment, "the acting-out neurotic" is often referred to the counseling center by either a faculty member or a residence hall director. In the classroom such a personality may display a hostile attitude and spend much time and effort in an attempt to outwit the professor. He may also test the outer limits of behavior in terms of classroom decorum and in regard to completing assignments in the required manner. Yet he is often a brilliant and capable student toward whom the professor feels he ought to show patience and tolerance but at the same time feels exasperated and provoked. In the residence hall, "the acting-out neurotic" ignores many of the minor rules and regulations but also manages to set the stage in such a way that he may be caught and punished. In his relationships with other students, he may display an excessive amount of attention-seeking behavior. However, due to his energy, superficial charm, and skillful verbal ability, he may be attractive and appealing to his fellow students. If "the acting-out neurotic" manages to dominate a student group temporarily, he uses a manipulative approach to get what he wants. If this does not succeed, he operates in a subtle fashion to disintegrate the group and to pull the whole enterprise down with him.

Another Variant of the Psychopathic Disorders

In contrast to "the acting-out neurotic," "the self-centered indulged personality"

does not seem to be disturbed by either anxiety or guilt. While a personality of this type feels hostile, Weinberg [11] believes that such hostility arises from feelings of helplessness and dependency rather than from anxiety. "The self-centered indulged personality" has been overprotected and in lay language "spoiled" by one of his parents. In childhood, such an individual has experienced very little denial, punishment, or criticism. Since obstacles have been overcome and battles won for him in the process of growing up, he lacks initiative and continues to remain immature. The parent who constantly satiates nearly all of his desires trains him to demand and expect too much at home. Subsequently he transfers numerous other demands and expectations to individuals outside of the home. He seeks to have his desires satisfied immediately and in full measure. He apparently is unable to profit appreciably from either experience or training. On the other hand, he may present a pleasing appearance, a quality of spontaneity, and the ability to establish warm interpersonal relationships. Yet he destroys these relationships by taking advantage of his associates to gain his own ends. Even though he may present a facade of warmth, charm, and agreeability, in reality he is too demanding, parasitic, and self-indulgent.

"The Self-Centered Indulged Personality" in the College Community

Like "the acting-out neurotic," the "self-centered indulged personality" seldom comes to the college counseling center of his own volition. Conversely, at least one of his professors may quickly develop feelings of resentment and irritation toward him, because he makes excessive demands in terms of individualized help and adroitly seeks to avoid doing difficult or tedious assignments by sophisticated wheedling or complaining. The professor may initially respond to his friendly, ingratiating, and superficially respectful manner but eventually becomes provoked by his immaturity, rationalizations, indolence, and occasional cheating on examinations. In the residence hall, "the self-centered indulged personality" demands and expects special considerations from staff and students. If he does not get what he wants, he may become hostile and sullen. Yet some of his personality characteristics make him initially attractive to other students. In extracurricular activities, an individual of this type shirks responsibilities to such a degree that he causes a group project to fail.

Origins of Psychopathic Personalities

In regard to psychopathic etiological factors, divergent explanations have been set forth by psychiatrists, psychologists, and sociologists. Some psychiatrists such as Palmer [9] mention heredity, constitutional factors, and cerebral patho-physiology. These in turn are reflected in a psychopathology and reinforced by psychological factors which result in a defective self-integration. Another psychiatrist, Jenkins [5], feels that psychopathy stems from chronic parental rejection, especially maternal rejection which is overt in nature. Lindner [7] psychoanalyst and author, believes that the primary etiological factor resides in a faulty resolution of the Oedipal conflict.

In contrast to Jenkins' theory cited above, psychologist White [12] cautions that parental rejection is also significant in the production of neurosis, and therefore it is possible to attribute the same cause to both psychopathic and neurotic personalities. Even though both of these disorders may occur in the same person, confusion is caused in classification and treatment when the main etiological factor is not properly identified. Consequently, White [*12, pp. 398–399*] proposes the hypothesis

> . . . that the psychopathic personality takes its start from an early childhood situation in which affectionate relationships are either lacking or *are so painfully interrupted that the memory of them becomes intolerable.* [Italics are mine.] There is a serious deficit of gratifying love and support. As a result, there is a stunting of those aspects of development which depend upon membership in a family group, identification with parents, and a willingness to govern behavior in the direction of remoter goals.

While neurotics usually have introjected

parental standards almost too excessively, psychopathic personalities have not introjected these standards strongly enough. Another psychologist, Leary [*6*], sees the psychopathic personality as the most disidentified with his parents on a conscious basis. This implies that in terms of personality development something has been persistently awry relative to the interpersonal relationships of the child and his parents.

Sociologists have also proposed varied theories about the origins of the psychopathic personality. Mead [*8*] believes that the psychopath is unable to look upon himself as an object. Gough [*4*] elaborates this theme by indicating that the psychopath is lacking in role-playing ability and cannot see the social implications of his own behavior because he is unable to identify with the viewpoints of others. Authors such as Reisman [*10*], Fromm [*3*], and Clinard [*2*] point to cultural factors which they believe are productive of various maladjustments from which may be drawn tacit implications that the current culture may be producing a new kind of psychopath. Some recent magazine and journal articles written by critics of the child-centered theories of child-rearing practices and educational procedures suggest that parents and educators may have gone to extremes of permissiveness with too few restraints on behavior, not enough inculcation of moral values and the cardinal virtues, and too much emphasis on the relativity of "good" and "bad" behavior. This would imply that some parents and educators together with various agencies, institutions, and influences of the current culture are producing individuals who are self-centered, security-minded, intent upon comfort and immediate materialistic gratifications, confused about moral issues, impatient with mores and regulations that inconvenience them personally, and, most important, firm in their desire to take care of themselves first and to anticipate that others will do likewise. If there is any validity in this concept, then it is easy to see how psychological stress in the current cultural milieu could produce more variants of the psychopathic personality.

Since this article has focused upon "the acting-out neurotic" and "the self-centered indulged personality," it is important to review Weinberg's [*11*] explanations of the causative factors which lead to psychopathy. He cites biological factors such as hereditary and congenital influences as well as subsequent physiological pathology resulting from injuries to or diseases of the brain and spine. In addition, he particularly stresses the importance of personality development and parent-child relationships. Weinberg [*11, p. 279*] states that ". . . the psychopath develops within a matrix of distant and impersonal parent-child relationships, and especially amidst changing and emotionally depriving parent figures."

The etiological factors just described pertain to psychopathic disorders in general. In terms of the primary causative factor involved in the production of "the acting-out neurotic," Weinberg [*11*] believes that such a personality develops when there is one parent who is too permissive and another parent who is both hostile toward the child and aloof from him. The overly permissive parent is frequently the mother, while the hostile, aloof parent is most often the father. The same authority also believes that "the self-centered indulged personality" emerges from interrelationships with parents who are much too permissive and who do not exercise appropriate controls over their child's behavior.

Treatment Procedures

Since methods of classification for psychopathic disorders and explanations of possible etiological factors are so widely divergent and sometimes confused, it is logical to assume that methods of treatment would also vary. When cases of organic pathology and other extremely disturbed psychopathic personalities are excluded from treatment considerations, most of the authorities cited in this paper variously suggest cathartic techniques, role-playing as it is practiced in psychodrama, environmental manipulation, and assistance that is pertinent to methods of coping with hostility and aggression. Palmer [*9*] also mentions group psychotherapy and the influence for good that the

personality of one man may have on another. Weinberg [11] feels that the "acting-out neurotic" can be helped if he is able to form a strong identification with the therapist. He also believes that "the self-centered indulged personality" may be improved by psychotherapy if the immaturity is not too extensive in nature.

Concluding Remarks

In terms of counseling these two variants of psychopathy in a college counseling center, the writer suggests that after cathartic techniques are employed and identification is developed, it might be helpful to point out how hostile, aggressive behavior pulls rejecting and punishing behavior from associates, and how demanding, immature behavior pulls rejection and ultimate disgust from others. It might also be worthwhile to redefine the outer limits of acceptable behavior in the classroom, in the residence hall, and in student activities after rapport is firmly established and strong identification with the therapist exists. These suggestions are intended for selected cases only and are not offered as techniques which are universal in their applicability.

It is hoped that future theoretical speculations and results from research in psychiatry, psychology, and sociology can be combined and formulated into more effective preventative measures and treatment procedures relative to variants of the psychopathic personality.

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SUMMER PROGRAMS FOR HIGH ABILITY STUDENTS

To provide a stimulus of experience for high ability secondary school students in the fields of science and mathematics, the National Science Foundation supports summer-session training programs in selected colleges, universities, and research institutions. From two to twelve weeks in length, the programs may consist of course work on a level advanced beyond that of the high school, or of research participation in laboratories where scientists are conducting on-going research, or a combination of both.

The awards of institutions where training programs are to be held have been announced. Copies of the names of the institutions may be obtained from: Special Projects in Science Education, National Science Foundation, Washington 25, D. C.

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION AND PRE-SERVICE COUNSELING

LEONARD V. GORDON and JOHN H. STEINEMANN

A MAJOR DECISION confronting a substantial number of high school students is that of choosing a course of action with relation to obligated, or voluntary, military service. The assistance of the high school counselor is available to students who may need not only general advice and guidance in this matter, but who also require specific information regarding the various training programs offered to recruits in the Armed Services.

Visits by recruiting personnel, as well as literature provided by the services, make available at the high school general information regarding the variety of service occupations and the requirements for training in each. Experience has indicated, however, that despite the availability of these sources of information, the occupational decisions made by new recruits are often hastily conceived or based on inadequate information and superficial considerations.

For example, in the Navy, the school-eligible recruit is to agree, during his third week of service, to accept training in one of the 59 or so programs that are offered. Within the limitations imposed by his aptitude test scores and the persuasiveness of the classification interviewer (who may be trying to fill quotas for certain schools) the choice is his. However, the recruit often is not sufficiently familiar with the content of the variety of training programs potentially available to him to permit him to make a reasonable choice. As a result, influences other than occupational information may operate in his selection of a training program. For example, knowing the location of a particular school, or where a buddy will ask to be assigned, or the specialty of a particularly liked or disliked company commander may exert the deciding influence as to the type of training requested. The situation is similar in the Army and Air Force, where selection of a career field is typically made at, or very soon after, the time of enlistment.

The need for pre-service advice and guidance to students is evident. This is the period when well-considered, practical steps can be taken by the student toward deciding on a vocational objective, which is suitable in terms of his inclinations and talents, and which is within the framework of actual training opportunities available in the Service. For example, the student may do exploratory reading in his area of expressed interest; he may take courses related to his field of intended training; he may observe, or actually obtain part-time experience in, related civilian jobs.

In order to provide optimal assistance to the student, the counselor must evaluate various factors entering into the student's expressed vocational choice in the light of practical considerations such as availability and requirements of the various Service Training Programs.

This report presents empirical data regarding the occupational preferences of the new recruit and his familiarity with the tasks performed in each of these occupational specialties.

This information, obtained from a sample of typical service-eligible young men, should be of value to the counselor, who will have to guide the high school student toward a

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The opinions and conclusions expressed herein are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the opinions of the Chief of Naval Personnel or the Department of the Navy.

realistic appraisal of his vocational goal and give him some indication of the likelihood of his obtaining particular types of training.[1]

Method

Descriptions of principal tasks performed in 59 Navy occupational specialties were obtained from the *U. S. Navy Occupational Handbook* [*1*], an information guide available to the high school counselor.[2] A total of 440 edited task descriptions, representing virtually all principal tasks, were administered to groups of new recruits to determine their degree of preference for and familiarity with each.

The subjects were 1,200 recruits who were being processed into the Navy at the Naval Training Center, San Diego. Seventy-one per cent of the group were 17 or 18 years of age. Ninety-seven per cent were 20 years of age or younger. Forty-seven per cent were high school graduates; six per cent had one year of college; about one per cent had more than one year of college. At the time of testing the recruits had been in the Navy less than three days and had received no indoctrination regarding the Navy occupations. Thus, their responses regarding their familiarity with various tasks can be assumed to relate to their pre-service experiences.

For convenience of administration, the 440 tasks were presented in two booklets of 230 and 210 tasks each. These booklets were administered to random samples of recruit input over a two-week period. Two hundred and thirty of the tasks were administered to 400 recruits for degrees of preference and to another 400 recruits for degrees of familiarity. Two hundred and ten items were administered to 200 recruits for degrees of preference and to another 200 recruits for degrees of familiarity.

To obtain the recruit's preference for each task, the recruit was asked to indicate to what extent he would like to perform that task using the following alternatives:

1. I would dislike very much to do this.
2. I would dislike to do this.
3. I would neither like nor dislike to do this.
4. I would like to do this.
5. I would very much like to do this.

To obtain the recruit's familiarity with each task, the recruit was asked to indicate how much of an idea he had or how familiar he was with what was done in the task, irrespective of whether he had performed or knew how to perform it, using the following alternatives:

1. I have no idea what is done.
2. I have only a vague idea what is done.
3. I have some idea what is done.
4. I have a good idea what is done.
5. I understand fully what is done.

Preference and familiarity indices were obtained for each task by giving the response alternatives values of 1 through 5, with 5 representing the most preferred and most familiar, and computing the mean of the responses of all subjects for that task. These indices were also computed for random halves of the papers, and split-half reliabilities were obtained and corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula. In this way, an indication of the stability of the preference and familiarity indices was obtained.

In order to determine the mean preference values and mean familiarity values of the original 59 Navy specialties, each item was reallocated to the specialty from which it was originally taken. The mean preference value and mean familiarity value for all tasks associated with a specialty were then determined. A product-moment correlation coefficient was computed between preference and familiarity values for all 59 specialties to provide an indication of the over-all relationship between preference and familiarity.

Results

TABLE 1 presents a listing of the 59 occupational specialties in rank order of their

[1] While this information was obtained on a Navy sample, recruit input and the training opportunities in all three services are highly similar. Thus, the present findings will have a high degree of generality.

[2] The specific number of Navy specialties varies from time to time. This variation has little or no effect on the essential duties of the large majority of specialties.

TABLE 1

Preference and Familiarity Rankings and Means for 59 Navy Occupational Specialties

Specialty*	Preference Rank	Preference Mean	Familiarity Rank	Familiarity Mean
Aviation Machinist's Mate (Airplane Mechanic)	1	3.35	40.5	2.34
Radarman (Radio or TV Repairman)	2	3.32	48	2.23
Engineman (Diesel or Gas Engine Mechanic)	3	3.28	16.5	2.71
Driver (Bulldozer or Power Shovel Operator)	4	3.20	4	3.04
Aviation Electronics Technician (Radio or TV Repairman)	5	3.19	45	2.28
Sonarman (Radio or TV Repairman)	6	3.18	54.5	2.16
Aviation Electronicsman (Radio or TV Repairman)	8	3.17	52	2.18
Fire Control Technician (Radio or TV Repairman)	8	3.17	49	2.22
Mechanic (Automobile Mechanic)	8	3.17	6	2.93
Air Controlman (Airport Control Operator)	10.5	3.16	42.5	2.33
Aviation Electrician's Mate (Airplane Electrician)	10.5	3.16	28	2.49
Electronics Technician (Radio or TV Repairman)	12	3.15	57	2.14
Electrician's Mate (Electrician)	13	3.12	27	2.52
Aviation Ordnanceman (Aircraft Armament Mechanic)	14	3.11	59	2.00
Construction Electrician's Mate (Lineman, Electrician)	15	3.10	29.5	2.47
Photographer's Mate (Commercial Photographer)	16	3.08	21.5	2.63
Aviation Boatswain's Mate (Airport Serviceman)	17	3.07	32	2.45
I.C. Electrician (Ship's Electrician)	18	3.06	35.5	2.38
Quartermaster (Ship's Pilot, Second Mate)	19	3.04	52	2.18
Radioman (Radio Operator)	20	3.02	40.5	2.34
Communications Technician (Radio Operator)	21.5	3.01	38.5	2.36
Tradevman (Electrical Appliance Repairman)	21.5	3.01	10	2.83
Machinery Repairman (Machinist, Maintenance Mechanic)	23	3.00	20	2.64
Aviation Structural Mechanic (Aircraft Welder)	24	2.98	13	2.75
Aerographer's Mate (Weather Forecaster)	25	2.97	38.5	2.36
Gunner's Mate (Firearms Assembler, Machinist)	26	2.96	37	2.37
Aviation Storekeeper (Stock Clerk, Inventory Clerk)	27	2.93	3	3.09
Machinist's Mate (Engine Repairman)	28	2.89	44	2.29
Torpedoman's Mate (Ordnance Man)	29	2.88	58	2.07
Surveyor (Surveyor)	30.5	2.87	29.5	2.47
Teleman (Teletypist, Clerk Typist)	30.5	2.87	5	2.96
Boatswain's Mate (Able Seaman)	32.5	2.86	15	2.73
Mineman (Ammunition Powderman, Mine Assembler)	32.5	2.86	56	2.15
Disbursing Clerk (Payroll Clerk, Bookkeeper)	35	2.85	2	3.16
Draftsman (Structural Draftsman)	35	2.85	19	2.65
Pipe Fitter (Plumber)	35	2.85	18	2.66
Opticalman (Lens Grinder, Optical Repairman)	37	2.83	52	2.18
Storekeeper (Stock Clerk, Shipping Clerk)	38	2.81	1	3.21
Journalist (Reporter)	39	2.80	8	2.88
Pattern Maker (Template Maker)	40	2.78	26	2.56
Metalsmith (Sheet Metal Worker)	41.5	2.77	23.5	2.61
Utilities Man (Boiler Fireman, Sewage Disposal Worker)	41.5	2.77	46	2.26
Instrumentman (Instrument Maker)	43	2.73	35.5	2.38
Machine Accountant (IBM Operator)	45	2.72	31	2.46
Personnel Man (Employment Interviewer)	45	2.72	14	2.74
Steelworker (Structural Steelworker)	45	2.72	23.5	2.61
Damage Controlman (Carpenter, Concrete Finishers)	47	2.71	9	2.86
Boilerman (Boiler Shop Repairman)	48.5	2.70	50	2.21
Yeoman (Clerk Typist, Stenographer)	48.5	2.70	12	2.77

Continued

TABLE 1
(Continued)

Specialty*	Preference Rank	Preference Mean	Familiarity Rank	Familiarity Mean
Builder (Carpenter)	50	2.63	7	2.92
Parachute Rigger (Parachute Packer)	51	2.60	47	2.24
Printer (Printer)	52	2.58	34	2.40
Hospital Corpsman (Practical Nurse, Hospital Orderly)	53.5	2.52	21.5	2.63
Molder (Molder)	53.5	2.52	54.5	2.16
Dental Technician (Dental Technician or Hygienist)	55	2.47	33	2.43
Ship's Serviceman (Barber, Tailor, Laundryman, Etc.)	56	2.43	16.5	2.71
Musician (Musician, Arranger)	57	2.39	42.5	2.33
Commissaryman (Cook, Baker)	58	2.32	11	2.82
Steward (Steward, Cook)	59	2.27	25	2.57

* The job titles in parenthesis represent one or more of a number of related civilian occupations.

mean preference values. Also presented in this table, for direct comparison, are the mean familiarity values and rankings associated with each of the specialties.

The corrected reliabilities of the preference and familiarity indices were 0.97 and 0.98, respectively, for the 230-item form, and 0.93 and 0.95, respectively, for the 210-item form. This indicates that the mean values listed in TABLE 1, which were based on these indices, have a very high degree of stability.[8]

The product-moment correlation between the preference and familiarity values was −0.17, which is not significantly different from zero. This indicates that no over-all relationship exists between average preference for a specialty and average familiarity with it. In some instances, the more highly preferred specialties are relatively familiar; in other instances they are relatively unfamiliar. Similarily, the less preferred specialties show a high degree of variation in familiarity rank.

Examination of TABLE 1 reveals, however, that *within certain groups of specialties* consistent relationships between preference and familiarity occur. Illustrations of such relationships follow:

a. Specialties involving maintenance of electronic equipment are very highly preferred but are relatively low in familiarity. Radarman, Aviation Electronics Technician, Sonarman, Aviation Electronicsman, Fire Control Technician, and Electronics Technician have respective preference ranks of 2, 5, 6, 8, 8, and 12, while their respective familarity ranks are 48, 45, 54.5, 52, 49, and 57.

b. Clerical occupations are most familiar to the recruit, but generally fall into the lower half of the distribution of preference ranks. Storekeeper, Disbursing Clerk, Aviation Storekeeper, Teleman, and Yeoman rank 1, 2, 3, 5, and 12 in familiarity and 38, 35, 27, 30.5, and 48.5 in preference, respectively.

c. Specialties which involve operation or maintenance of automotive engines or equipment are both high in preference and familiarity. These are Engineman, Driver, and Mechanic which rank, respectively, 3, 4, and 8 in preference and 16.5, 4, and 6 in familiarity.

d. Specialties involving ordnance are lowest in familiarity but average in preference value. Mineman, Torpedoman's Mate, and Aviation Ordnanceman rank 56, 58, and 59 in familiarity but 32.5, 29, and 14 in preference.

e. A number of specialties of the domestic or personal services variety are universally low in preference but are relatively familiar. Hospital Corpsman, Dental Technician, Ship's Serviceman, Commissaryman, and Steward rank 53.5, 55, 56, 58, and 59 in

[8] Since all item indices were not obtained on the same sample of subjects, conventional statistical tests of significance of mean differences cannot be used. However, the stability of these means is such that comparisons among them may be meaningfully made.

preference while in familiarity they rank 21.5, 33, 16.5, 11, and 25, respectively.

f. Building trade occupations are fairly high in familiarity but fairly low in preference. Examples are Builder, Damage Controlman, Pipe Fitter, and Steelworker which rank 7, 9, 18, and 23.5 in familiarity but 50, 47, 35, and 45 in preference.

g. Electrical occupations tend to be of fairly high preference and of average familiarity. Aviation Electrician's Mate, Electrician's Mate, Construction Electrician's Mate, and IC Electrician rank 10.5, 13, 15, and 18 in preference and 28, 27, 29.5, and 35 in familiarity.

It is of interest to note that all aviation specialties fall in the upper half of the preference rankings. However, they vary substantially in familiarity, the ranking ranging from 3 to 59. Further examination indicates that where similar tasks are involved in aviation and non-aviation specialties, the former are higher in preference rank. For example, the preference ranks of corresponding pairs of specialties are: Aviation Machinist's Mate 1, Mechanic 6; Aviation Electronics Technician 5, Electronics Technician 12; Aviation Electrician's Mate 10.5, Electrician's Mate 13; and Aviation Storekeeper 27, Storekeeper 38.

Discussion

The occupational preferences of recruits are highest for specialties involving electronics, aviation, and automotive engine operation and maintenance. For the latter specialty, this expressed interest is apparently based on some working knowledge of the tasks involved. However, in the case of electronics and certain aviation specialties, the contrasting low familiarities highlight the fact that interests are very often based on factors other than knowledge of what the job entails. Furthermore, it is reasonable to assume that for all specialties there may be individuals with high expressed interest, but with less than adequate familiarity.

Expressed preference for an unfamiliar occupation may reflect a real desire on the part of the young man to learn and to take advantage of a service training program. However, a choice of this sort involves the risk of his selecting a program that will provide him little personal satisfaction. Such a risk could be largely circumvented by guidance prior to his entry into the service.

In pre-service counseling, the counselor may first wish to ascertain the extent to which the student will probably meet aptitude requirements for particular types of service training. He may wish to examine such things as aptitude test scores, high school grades in various subjects, and relevant biographical information such as hobbies, extracurricular activities, and part-time jobs. He can work with the student toward determining the real basis of his expressed interest. Where the expressed interest is not an informed interest, he can direct the student to appropriate sources of occupational information.

The counselor can apprise the student of the relative popularity of the specialty of his choice. He may wish to point out to the student that certain occupational specialties are highly related in terms of duties involved. The counselor may explore with him areas of secondary interests, since a second choice is required by the Navy, and in some instances an alternative choice is requested by the Army and Air Force during classification. He may wish to discuss with the student career opportunities in some of the less preferred occupational areas, which, although less glamorous, may have compensatory benefits.

Classification for specialized service training occurs at the very beginning of the recruit's military career. The young man who has not decided what type of training to request has, at this point, neither the leisure nor facilities to obtain detailed occupational information upon which to make a decision. Thus, the high school counselor can play an important role. By guiding the service-eligible student toward an appropriate career field, he can perform a service both to the individual and to the Armed Forces.

Reference

1. *U. S. Navy Occupational Handbook.* Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Naval Personnel, 1954.

Guidance in Practice

An Evaluation of a County Guidance Program

PAUL W. FITZGERALD

During the 1959–1960 school year, every school counselor in Pinellas County, Florida, took an active part in an intensive county-wide guidance evaluation sponsored by the Pinellas County Board of Public Instruction and the National Defense Education Act of 1958. This in-service evaluation included a self-evaluation, a county-wide guidance workshop, and a county guidance evaluation by a visiting team.

The guidance program in Pinellas County has grown from a small beginning in 1949, when one counselor worked in an office converted from a projection room for two periods a day, to its present status with 41 counselors in the secondary schools throughout the entire county. The counselor-student ratio in 1949 was one-third counselor (one counselor released two periods) for every 7,841 students, and now its present ratio is one counselor for every 667 students. The secondary schools will open the 1960–1961 school year with 55 counselors. Eighty-four per cent of these counselors will be fully certified.

A noteworthy comment is the fact that 87 per cent of the Pinellas County counselors are members of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, while 100 per cent of the counselors belong to the following associations:

National Education Association
Florida Education Association
Florida Association of Deans and Counselors (state professional organization)
Suncoast Personnel and Guidance Association (local professional organization)

Pinellas County's Self-Evaluation

During the self-evaluation, each counselor was a member of at least one of the following committees. The prime objective of each committee was to improve guidance in Pinellas County schools. Specific objectives are listed under each committee.

The Guidance and Evaluation Steering Committee. This committee was responsible for coordinating the activities of the self-evaluation and planning toward a report on the county guidance services that would be presented to the visiting evaluating team at the time of their evaluation. This report included Philosophy, Guidance Point of View, Major Objectives of Guidance Services, History of Guidance in Pinellas County, County Pupil Personnel Services, The Guidance Role of the School Staff, and Community Agencies. The progress of this committee was reported at every monthly county-wide counselors' staff meeting.

The Junior High Counselors Committee. The major responsibility of this committee was to work toward a definition of the role of the junior high counselor that would include the tasks, duties, and responsibilities of the junior high counselor. This was accomplished by planning agendas for several junior high counselor staff meetings at which time this committee offered possible suggestions as to the best approach to a clarification of the role of the junior high counselor.

The Senior High Counselors Committee. This committee was responsible for carrying out the same objectives as the Junior High Counselors Committee except on a senior high level.

The Counselors Supplement Study Committee. A survey was conducted, by this committee, of salary supplements given counselors in other sections of the country, and the committee arrived at a recommended supplement to be requested for Pinellas County counselors. The Committee also set up a criterion for counselors to meet and suggested a method of evaluating each counselor applying for this recommended supplement.

The Counselors Log Committee. A guidance activity log and guidance activity summary log were formulated by this committee. Each counselor kept an accurate activity log for 10 days during the months of January and February, 1960. These 10 days were selected by a random sampling of the total school days of these two months. This random sampling was accomplished by placing every school date for January and February on ping pong balls and drawing ten ping pong balls out for the first counselor, replacing the balls and repeating this procedure for each counselor in the county. It was

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felt that this process should give a representative account of the activities of each counselor.

The Continuing Guidance Evaluation and Planning Committee. The ultimate objective of this committee was to plan toward a meaningful, useful, and continuing program of evaluation of guidance services in Pinellas County. This committee started with the report of the county guidance evaluating team and recommended immediate, as well as long-range, goals of the county and individual school guidance program. Another objective was to suggest ways of keeping the local school and county administration, as well as the public, informed of the progress and needs of guidance in Pinellas County schools.

County Guidance Workshop

"Guidance: A Snapshot and Projection" was the theme used in the county guidance workshop. This workshop, sponsored by the National Defense Education Act and the Pinellas County Board of Public Instruction, included every Pinellas County secondary school principal and counselor, as well as school psychologists, visiting teachers, and representatives from the county administration office. Observers from the guidance departments of surrounding counties, representatives from the guidance section of the Florida State Department of Education, and the department heads from the guidance training sections of the Florida State University, University of Florida, and the University of South Florida participated in the workshop.

The workshop consultant was Dr. C. C. Dunsmoor, Director, Board of Cooperative Educational Services, Westchester County, New York, and recipient of the first Nancy C. Wimmer award of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. He presented the keynote address of the two-day workshop, "The School Counselor, 1960–70" which related to the functioning role of the counselor in the development of a sound guidance program. This was followed by small group discussions and reports of the groups. Two symposia, senior high school guidance problems and junior high school guidance problems, were held in the afternoon. In the evening, a banquet address "A Realistic View of the Counselor in Pinellas County Schools" was given by Dr. Dunsmoor, in which he compiled notes from the proceedings of the day in organizing his address. The next day consisted of a panel discussion on the topic "How Can Pinellas County Schools Approach a More Realistic View of the School Counselor." Panel members included the following: a junior high school principal, a senior high school principal, a junior high school counselor, a senior high school counselor, a county director of secondary curriculum, a county director of educational or pupil personnel services, and a county coordinator of special education and visiting teachers. This panel was followed by a summary by the Consultant which concluded the workshop.

A statement made by one of the senior high school principals seemed to sum up the benefits of the workshop, "As long as I've been in the county, this is the first time that all the people involved in a certain problem have been able to come together and discuss that particular problem."

County-Wide Guidance Evaluation

After the workshop, the guidance personnel continued to work toward a report for a visiting evaluation committee, composed of the following persons:

Chairman: Dr. Arthur A. Hitchcock
Executive Director
American Personnel and Guidance Association

Dr. Harold F. Cottingham, Director
Department of Counseling and Guidance
Florida State University

Dr. Dorothy D. Hayes, Chairman
Graduate Program in Social Work
Florida State University

Dr. Frank L. Sievers, Chief
Guidance, Counseling, and Testing
U. S. Office of Education

Dr. Robert O. Stripling, Head
Department of Personnel Services
University of Florida.

This evaluating team spent three and a half days in Pinellas County. The team studied the report of the Pinellas County Guidance Evaluation Steering Committee and additional statements from each individual school concerning their own program of guidance services.

These materials were studied in advance of a schedule of visitations to all of the secondary schools in the county. During these visits, the teams conferred first with the principal, then with the guidance coordinator and counselors in the school, and then, depending upon the situation, conferred with other guidance, health, and administrative personnel, and with teachers, and with students. The pattern varied from school to school.

On the afternoon of the final visitation day, the evaluating team presented a report of their findings, general and particular, and recommendations on personnel, facilities, and organization, to a meeting of the secondary school principals, counselors, visiting teachers, school psychologists, and representatives of the county administration. One member of the evaluating team returned at a later date to present the same report to a regularly scheduled meeting of the Pinellas County Board of Public Instruction.

The results of this intensive year-long study of the county guidance program by the school counselors have been incorporated into a booklet, "Guidance in Pinellas County Schools." This booklet was distributed to the personnel involved in the study and other interested persons.

The values of conducting a county-wide guidance evaluation are immeasurable. Such an evaluation offers an opportunity for total participation of every person involved in guidance, in every school. Through this in-service form of participation, each person gains by contributing, receiving, and exchanging ideas with others in the pupil personnel field.

Student Perceptions of Varied Campus Climates

DAVID COLE and BEVERLY FIELDS

The purpose of this paper is to describe a method which has been utilized by the authors to assay student perceptions of their own campus, in comparison with what the same students imagine to be student perceptions at three "rival" institutions.

The matter came to the attention of those involved in student personnel services when a study by the Admissions Office revealed that the majority of our competition for top quality students came from the three "rival" institutions referred to above. Discussion evolved around the factors in student choice and the question of images which students might hold of the four institutions, including their own, which were under discussion.

To study this question, use was made of the *College Classification Index*, recently published by Syracuse University [1]. The *Index* is a 300 item "true-false" type questionnaire. About half of the items deal with matters pertaining to campus operations which are presumably objectively knowable, for instance: "Students here have assigned seats." The other items clearly require a more subjective appraisal—"Everybody here has a lot of fun." The items cover a very wide area, encompassing the social and intellectual life of the campus.

Sixty-two lower division students participated in the study. Each student was asked to complete the *Index* twice, once answering from his perspective of his own school, and on the other trial answering as he felt a student of his status enrolled at a designated other institution would answer regarding that school. The "other institution" designated was, in each case, one of the three which had been identified by the Admissions Office, as described above. Half of the subjects answered first with reference to their own institution, and half answered on the first trial as if they were enrolled at the "other" school. As a student was completing the *Index* the first time he did not know what the directions were to be for the second administration, only that such an administration was part of the procedure.

The specific results would not be of great interest to a general audience. Item analyses were completed and four comparisons made: three involving comparing our students' perceptions of their own campus with their perceptions of the other schools. A fourth involved consideration of sex differences in perceptions of our own institution. Statistical tests for significance of obtained differences were applied throughout.

It appeared that one of the three rival institutions was perceived as being essentially similar to our own school. No important differences emerged, although there was a trend toward conceiving of the other campus as having a stronger intellectual orientation. Another of the "rival" institutions was seen as much more active socially than was our own school, although sacrificing most of the intellectual stimulation the students found at their home institution. The third, and the major competitor, appeared to offer the student the chance to "have his cake and eat it too," in that it offered all the imagined social stimulation attributed to the school just described, without sacrificing any of the intellectual stimulation. At the same time it emerged that the students imagined the faculty at this third institution to be far less interested in students than the students were accustomed to finding "at home."

The original test authors report that differences within an institution are usually less than differences between institutions. A counterpart to this may be found in the limited number of sex differences found in our data. While there were some, they were not pronounced. Considering their own campus, the women appeared to express greater dissatisfaction with the social life than did the men. They were apparently more interested in the social life and so expressed more frustration over inadequacies which

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they found within it. They were less future oriented than the men, as to vocation, career, or leadership. They were less critical of their courses and more concerned with personal appearances. None of these differences appear surprising, nor were they as great in magnitude as the perceived differences between our own campus and two of the others studied here.

In conclusion, use of the *Index* as herein described has seemed to offer some useful clues as to the reasons that may be involved in student selection of certain alternative college choices. In addition, the data have given us an interesting picture of student perception of our own campus and of the extent and nature of sex differences in such perceptions. It is hoped that these data will be useful in presenting our campus to prospective students and in counseling with students who are anticipating transfer to another institution, or who have found our campus different from their expectations. It appears that the method described here might be profitably applied in other locations.

Reference

1. Stern, George C., & Pace, C. Robert. *College characteristics index.* Syracuse, N. Y.: Psychological Research Center, Syracuse University, 1958.

GOALS FOR AMERICANS VIEWS GUIDANCE AND TESTING

Goals for Americans, the report of the President's Commission on National Goals, includes this view on guidance and testing in the chapter on "National Goals in Education," by John W. Gardner.

"Guidance is an inescapable necessity of education today. By 1970 it should be provided by professionally trained people in all school systems. Every school should have a testing program beginning in grade one if not before.

"Some experts have urged that there be one full-time counselor for every 250 to 300 pupils. That is a useful goal, but we must not be so eager to attain it that we accept unqualified people. The requirements are vague today and permit many unqualified people to become counselors. By 1970 no state should require less than the M.A., and certification requirements should insure that newly entering counselors are professionally competent." (page 86)

Published by Prentice-Hall, *Goals for Americans* is available in paperback edition for $1.00.

Letters

from our readers

Standardizing Vocational Materials

To the Editor:

Several years ago I wrote a letter to the Editor that was published in the APGA *Journal* (October, 1957) regarding my desire for a standardization of both size and content in vocational material.

I have had quite a few people mention this letter to me, and I have yet to find a person that disagreed in principle. Yet, as far as I know, nothing has been done, and it becomes more and more urgent all the time.

The B'nai B'rith Vocational Service, for example, publishes the excellent Counselor's Information Service which allows one to send for quantities of free and inexpensive literature. This literature arrives in all shapes and sizes, and in all stages of completeness. Since maybe I am looking a gift horse in the mouth, I think that I can honestly make approximately the same statement regarding much purchased materials, athough the quality is generally much better than some of the free material.

These great differences in content and size make it much harder to use, and I wish to restate my plea in the original letter that "something be done." Since my letter started no fire, no mass movement for standardization, I again say that I think an organization such as ours must take the initiative and set up a commission or study group with at least some money and, I would hope, power to act—or at least recommend strongly. With so many more people getting into the act, things can only get worse before they get better, even if we started at once, and if we wait, I'm sure things will get much worse.

Most people, I'm sure, writing these informational sheets for business concerns would listen to suggestions. Anything would be an improvement. Also, I would be not only willing but happy to do what I could to bring any improvement about in this area.

Jack Down
Guidance Director
East Lansing Public Schools
East Lansing, Michigan

On Part-Time Counselors

To the Editor:

The October issue of *Coronet* carried an article on the current shortage of counselors in the United States entitled "We Need 20,000 Guidance Counselors." By Theodore Irwin, the article quotes several sources of information indicating graphically the value of counseling programs.

At the Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth the American Personnel and Guidance Association and its participating members played an influential and instrumental role in the formation of 12 proposals for the future of guidance. The Conference set the standards for the elementary schools by establishing the ratio of 1 elementary school counselor to 600 students, recommending that in secondary schools the present ratio be decreased from 625 to 1 to 250 to 1 and that more adequate psychological and psychiatric services be provided for all school-age youth in a ratio of 1 specialist to 2,000 pupils.

The problem of filling this need from fully qualified professional staff will not be met for some time. There is, however, a source which is not being tapped. There are many women today with B.A. degrees who would like to take graduate work in guidance and personnel work and who do not do so, because they are unable to take full-time jobs. They are married, have children, husbands, and homes to take care of. At the same time, they have the time, energy, and talent to fill a part-time job in an elementary school, high school, college, or agency. Many of them are mature people who have been out of the labor market for some time, but these intervening years have been full of experience which could be very valuable to the skills required of the guidance counselor. Because they

are alert and interested, these women have been active in parent-teacher work, scouting, and many other community activities, which have sharpened their skills in working with people. They also bring to the job the skill which is required in running a home smoothly and effectively, namely, intelligence, tact, patience, understanding, and flexibility. These skills plus the professional training received in graduate work could produce very effective counselors. I am not so naive as to suggest that every homemaker has the above qualities, but certainly there are many that do, and the effective screening of candidates for training could be done by the colleges.

Institutions hesitate to hire part-time professional counselors. Yet if trained counselors are increasingly difficult to obtain, it may be easier to hire two part-time, fully trained counselors, than one full-time person.

Many schools use their faculty to augment their counseling staff. Sometimes this is fine, but often a good teacher does not necessarily make an effective counselor. Every college has faced the problem of not having enough faculty to draw from for the adviser staff. Time is then taken away from these teachers for necessary reading or research, both of which are so sorely needed.

We worry so much about America being able to meet the challenge of tomorrow. Let us not overlook this source of labor which is so willing to do its part for America.

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History of Technology and Guidance

To the Editor:

When it comes to predicting future occupational trends, the past can have obvious values, even if the age of automation has brought changes in the basic way in which knowledge is organized and applied. The recent formation of the Society for the History of Technology and its international quarterly *Technology and Culture* accompanies a growing interest and research production pertaining to the development of our technology.

What about the application of this to occupational information literature and courses? It seems reasonable to suppose that the "respectability," as well as the usefulness, of occupational information materials could be improved by full utilization of this type of source.

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Books Reviewed

reviews of recent publications . . . by various contributors

OCCUPATIONAL OUTLOOK HANDBOOK. (U. S. Department of Labor Bulletin No. 1255) 1959 edition. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, U. S. GPO, 1959. 785 pp. $4.25.

FROM ITS origin in 1946 as a Veterans Administration internal manual, to this fourth edition as a publicly available volume, the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* has been progressively developed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics into an essential and ever more widely accepted occupational information resource. Over the years numerous federal agencies and increasing hundreds of business organizations, unions, trade associations, professional societies, and educational institutions have come to contribute data, advice, or other assistance for each revision. Much of the pertinent basic research of the Bureau over the past 14 years, for example, has had the counsel and financial support of the VA's Vocational Rehabilitation and Education Service. The first public edition of the *Handbook*, on the other hand, was recommended by the NVGA, whose formal standards for occupational literature have strongly influenced the outlook descriptions ever since.

This reference is used by all federal agencies providing vocational counseling services, by all local offices of state employment services, and by vocational rehabilitation agencies, educational institutions, local community organizations, and private concerns throughout the country. An earlier edition was rated among the top 4 of 52 sources of occupational information for both frequency of use and usefulness by 268 certified school counselors in 4 states.[1] Previous editions have sold more than 120,000 copies. The *Handbook*, it is obvious, has earned wide and secure employment under varied working conditions. But what is the nature of this work, some of its advantages and disadvantages, and its outlook?

The *kinds* of information provided remain unchanged in this edition. "Designed to provide the occupational information young people need to help them in career decisions," the 1959 revision brings up-to-date the information on the customary topics: nature of the work; where employed; training, other qualifications, and advancement; employment outlook; earnings and working conditions; and sources of further information. It also expands the *Handbook's* coverage of the world of work to a new total of more than 600 occupations and 30 industries. Among the important kinds of work new to the *Handbook* are electronic computer programmers, occupations in missiles and spacecraft, technicians, instrument repairmen, school counselors, clergymen, motor vehicle drivers, protective service occupations, and occupations in the baking and the paper and pulp industries. Among the major trends influencing outlook changes in these and other occupations since 1957, we are informed, are the continuing growth and changing composition of the population and labor force, advances in science and technology, and the rising levels of education being required and attained for both job entry and job advancement.

The organization of the *Handbook* is also essentially unchanged. Introductory chapters in this edition parallel counterpart chapters in the 1957 edition: putting the *Handbook* to work; the organization of the *Handbook* and some pointers on interpreting the outlook statements; where to go for more (including local) information and assistance; main general population, labor force, industrial, and occupational trends; and the earnings of workers in the United States. The latter two chapters provide an excellent foundation for understanding trends and variations in the individual occupations and industries discussed in the main body of the book. A technical appendix outlining the special sources, methods, and basic assumptions (no large-scale war, continued high general business level) used in developing the employment projections is new and affords professional workers some

[1] Kuntz, J. E., & Jettson, C. T. Use and appraisal of occupational literature by secondary school counselors. *Personnel Guid. J.*, 37: 6 (1955), 441–443.

valuable insight into the basic pattern of research underlying the various outlook studies. An index arranged according to *D.O.T.* Part IV fields of work, another arranging individual occupation and industry titles in alphabetical order, and the table of contents afford three differently oriented means of locating desired information.

This edition, like previous ones, describes not only the significant long-run trends within and among broad occupational groups, but also the very important variations and divergent trends in individual occupations and industries within the broader groups. It continues wisely to stress both the frequent need for local, more specific facts and the values of evaluating local and immediate circumstances, in turn, against a background of wider and longer-term information. The *Occupational Outlook Handbook* is undoubtedly the most authoritative, reliable, up-to-date, and comprehensive *single* source of broad, long-range, national (and some regional) occupational outlook information. It is further strengthened by the fact that for several years now this basic publication has been supplemented and kept abreast of the latest Bureau occupational outlook reappraisals by means of a coordinated program of supporting publications. The cumulatively indexed *Occupational Outlook Quarterly;* occupational outlook bulletins and special reports; and other interim materials make it possible for, and therefore incumbent upon, professional workers to keep themselves, their reference files, and their clients abreast of the very latest available information affecting the outlook descriptions reported in the *Handbook.*

Though progressively enlarged in occupational coverage, the *Handbook* does not, of course, fully represent the occupational world. We are told that the occupations treated in the 1959 edition represent 90 per cent of all workers in professional and related occupations, 90 per cent of those in sales occupations, 80 per cent in skilled occupations, 55 per cent in clerical occupations, 55 per cent in service occupations (except in private households), and smaller proportions in administrative and semiskilled occupations. This weighting of the occupational content toward "most of the large ones requiring long periods of education and training" and toward "a number of small but rapidly growing fields and other occupations of special interest for various reasons" is similar, of course, to that of many other sources of occupational information. These criteria, however derived, do limit the utility of the present *Handbook* for work with many students and agency clients who are mentally, educationally, or otherwise disqualified for skilled and higher level work. This edition does not meet the need for more and better occupational information at the semiskilled (and even unskilled) levels, where many millions of our labor force will continue to work. Furthermore, as the above percentages also disclose, there are also some gaps even in the generally better represented segments of the occupational structure—for example, performing artists, post office workers, geographers, and dental mechanics, to name some occupations recently under study by the Bureau. Users of the *Handbook* need to be aware of such gaps in acquiring occupational information materials from other sources and in using the volume as an occupational exploratory tool with clients.

The typical content of the *Handbook's* occupational statements constitutes another kind of limitation—for certain aspects of counseling, at least. The nature of the work (restricted essentially to *D.O.T.* terms), where employed, training requirements, and so forth, are basic kinds of "outlook" information, among the main kinds required by the standing NVGA criteria for occupational literature. But these are not all of the aspects of "the occupational information young people need to help them in career decisions." As they offer little concerning the psychological and sociological "outlook" for different occupational careers, counselors and others now alert to the significance of such factors for occupational choice, success, and satisfaction may be expected to become increasingly aware of the insufficiency in these respects of the occupational information presented in the *Handbook,* as well as in other readily available sources. Here is not a gap, that is, but a general hiatus reflected in the *Handbook.*

Readability of the 1957 *Occupational Outlook Handbook* was assessed as "college-level" on the basis of both Flesch and Dale-Chall formulas.[2] It is most probable that a

[2] Watson, D. E., Rundquist, R. M., & Cottle, W. C. What's wrong with occupational materials? *J. counsel. Psychol.,* 6: 4 (1959), 288–291.

similar evaluation of the current edition would result from the same checks, for the language *seems* much the same. At any rate, serious attention needs to be given to the question of how well many students and agency clients may read and comprehend this material for themselves and to what the functional implications for the *Handbook* may be.

One hundred seventy-seven excellent photographs of persons at work not only help to stimulate and maintain reader interest, but also offer some occupational orientation of their own for many students and counselees. The quality of printing and paper is very good. The new volume, while thicker than the preceding one, is not heavier. For constant use, however, a cover of somewhat more durable paper and color less unkind than light grey to finger smudges would be desirable. Those wishing to file reports on individual occupations and industries in classified reference folders, or desiring for other purposes to have one or more of the *Handbook* sections separately available, may take advantage of the convenience that they are also separately printed as 89 nominally priced career pamphlets (also sold by the Government Printing Office).

The *Occupational Outlook Handbook* is a top priority requirement for every adequate occupational information library. Its contributions to counseling and personnel work are unique in many important ways. Its problems and limitations fall far short of overriding its positive and total values. They are, nonetheless, significant qualifications to be recognized and heeded in using the volume. Already proved, the *Handbook* is still developing, qualitatively and quantitatively, in alert and competent hands. Counselors and other personnel workers, their trainers, counselees, and guidance-minded teachers will continue to find "excellent opportunities" in this "work."—DAVID H. PRITCHARD, *Staff Counseling Psychologist, Veterans Administration Central Office, Washington, D. C.*

GUIDANCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, by Gerald T. Kowitz & Norma G. Kowitz. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1959. 314 pp. $5.75.

THERE IS a growing recognition of the importance of strong guidance programs, competently staffed, at the elementary school level. However, relatively few guidelines have been agreed upon for the development of such programs. Realizing that the classroom teacher will be a key person in elementary school guidance, the authors have attempted to design a frame of reference that will be valuable to "classroom teachers and prospective teachers who are interested in the philosophy of guidance and its practical relationship to mental hygiene, to child development, to teaching, and to learning." Furthermore, they state that the book "is not intended to prepare the teacher for professional counseling." Rather, it is an attempt to view the school guidance program through the eyes of the classroom teacher and to assist him in clarifying his role in the elementary school guidance process.

The book is divided into three main parts. First, there is a presentation of the foundations of guidance in the elementary school. However important knowledge and skills may be, they are not enough. The elementary school child must live in a world of social relationships. He must be helped in developing positive attitudes toward self, inter-personal relationships, and acceptable patterns for leisure-time activities. These are the important goals of elementary school guidance. It is the task of the elementary classroom teacher to create a climate in which these goals can be accomplished. He must understand and be sensitive to the effects of success, failure, and frustration on the mental health of the child. For example, the authors state:

> In living, some frustration is inevitable. . . . In the classroom, the teacher's problem is to prevent a degree of frustration which will overwhelm the pupil. . . . In situations creating a lesser degree of frustration, it is far more important to help the child deal with it. Eventually, he must learn to handle his frustrations. . . ."

The second part of the book is concerned with the nature of guidance services in the elementary school. The teacher's role in such functions as keeping records, testing, counseling, giving information, and making referrals is discussed. This section, although very condensed, contains many helpful suggestions. Perhaps the greatest con-

tribution consists of the help given the teacher to become sensitive to the need for these services at the elementary school level and the part that the teacher can play in making the services function effectively in the lives of elementary school children. However, the reviewer could not help but feel disturbed over the attitudes that classroom teachers might develop concerning counseling. As indicated above, the authors state that the book is not designed to prepare a professional counselor. Yet, such statements as, "Another situation in which the teacher is forced to assume the role of the counselor is that of dealing with parents" or "The classroom teacher will frequently find that he cannot avoid the role of the counselor," makes one wonder what attitude the classroom teacher might develop toward counseling. Also, the counseling process is presented as a formal "one-to-one" relationship with too little recognition of the fact that the younger elementary school child, most often, does not fit into such a setting. However, these criticisms are not intended to suggest that what has been said about counseling is completely distorted. The reviewer recognizes the difficult task of stating all of what should be said about counseling in 14 pages! The authors have pointed out the limitations of the classroom teacher in the counseling process, and it is only hoped that this will serve as a challenge to classroom teachers who are "forced" to do counseling to learn more about the counseling relationship.

The discussion of the referral process should be helpful to elementary teachers. Ideas are presented that should assist the teacher in becoming more sensitive to the need of referral, and helpful suggestions are made concerning ways of making referrals.

The last third of the book relates to activating guidance in the elementary school. This section is full of ideas concerning the part that the classroom teacher plays in implementing the guidance process in a learning situation. However, concern must be manifested about the attitude that may be developed by the classroom teacher concerning the concept of guidance in elementary education. In this part of the book the guidance process is approached almost entirely from the point of view of problem solving. Too little attention is given to the importance of elementary school guidance

in the area of self-enhancement and the reinforcement of positive attitudes. This is not to suggest that problems among children in the elementary school should be overlooked. It is merely a plea for the recognition that guidance is more than problem solving or working with children who have problems. Again, too many generalizations should not be drawn from this criticism. The book makes a significant contribution in focusing the attention of the elementary school classroom teacher on the individual child and the importance of working with individuals instead of groups.

The book provides stimulating reading for students and counselor educators. Also, it should be useful to faculty groups for in-service education. The authors have raised many provocative questions concerning the role of the elementary school classroom teacher in the guidance process.—Robert O. Stripling, *Professor of Education, University of Florida.*

The Handbook of Adult Education in the United States, edited by Malcolm S. Knowles. Chicago: Adult Education Association of the U. S. A., 1960. 640 pp. $7.50.

A book so large, comprehensive, and broad in scope is difficult to review in the usual way. Some of the articles are outstanding and some mediocre. The book is long and adequate on reporting adult education methods, practices, and history but is short and inadequate on theory, research, and future potentials of adult education. It is a book well worth owning, but not to be read at one time. The purpose of this book, as determined by the Publication Committee of the Adult Education Association was "to provide an overview description of the current nature, characteristics, and trends of the field of adult education in order that adult education workers may be brought up-to-date about developments in the field since the 1948 *Handbook,* and place themselves and their programs in the context of the whole field."

The editor selected 52 authors to collaborate on the development of the over-all status of adult education as of 1960. The groups of writers includes some of the outstanding leaders in the field.

The book is organized into five major parts, each part examining a different dimension of the adult education field.

Part I, "Background and Overview," presents a general picture of the whole field. It establishes basic definitions and gives a historical picture of adult education in the United States.

Part II, "Some Common Concerns of Adult Educators," examines the several major dimensions of adult education which are of greatest concern to adult educators. These include philosophies of education, learning theory, program development, methods, materials, research, training, finance, public understanding, architecture, and the literature of adult education. This section could have been enhanced, in this reviewer's mind, by greater attention to behavioral science research on adult behavior and its effect on the field of adult education.

Part III, "Institutional Programs and Resources," surveys the institutional settings and resources for adult education. These include councils and associations, business and industry, colleges and universities, agricultural extension government agencies, foundations, social welfare agencies, labor unions, libraries, public schools, religious institutions, and others.

Part IV, "Program Areas for Adult Education," surveys the principal subjects of adult study, such as academic education, education for aging, community development, the creative arts, literacy education, health and safety, home and family living, human relations, liberal education, public affairs, vocational arts, and others.

Part V, "The Role and Future of Adult Education in American Society," analyzes the function of adult education in our total social system and identifies the trends that indicate its future course. This section, with one excellent article, could have been improved with additional points of views and greater attention to the future of adult education in the action phases of democracy, such as political education, international relations, social stress problems between races and different ages of our population, and similar such important social concerns.

The last two sections are lists of national associations and agencies plus a general bibliography.

This handbook is a valuable resource for the reference shelf of an experienced adult educator, is helpful to students preparing for adult education courses, and provides a general background for those interested in adult education.

As a survey work, it more than adequately does the job. The size of the book should not discourage the reader. One will not find in this book the answers to all the problems of adult education, but a clear coverage of some of the causes of the problems and some existing practices that are but meager beginnings of the possible future of adult education in the coming decade.—GORDON L. LIPPITT, *Director, Center for the Behavioral Sciences, George Washington University.*

SEX HISTORIES OF AMERICAN COLLEGE MEN, by Phyllis and Eberhard Kronhausen. New York: Ballantine Books, 1960. 313 pp. $5.00.

THIS VOLUME, prepared by a husband and wife team, utilizes data obtained by the distaff member while she was an instructor for a course in Marriage and Family Life conducted for juniors and seniors at an all-male college. As part of their class work, students were asked to prepare ". . . personal histories covering the following areas: how the students acquired their sex education, the circumstances under which they started masturbation, memories of early childhood sexuality, sexual experiences in adolescence, homo- or heterosexual contacts, dating, and the nature and extent of the students' sexual activities while in college." The authors present these "sex histories" in the form of *selected extracts* illustrating the focus of each of the chapters. With this format, the book is *really not* a collection of clinical case histories as the casual reader of book titles might infer. The writing style of the authors is simple, direct, and geared to the popular readership for which the book is intended.

Beginning with a synoptic treatment of Kinsey's study of sexual behavior of the human male, and with this as a frame of reference, the authors proceed to interpret their material in terms of confirming a number of the conclusions that Kinsey drew

from his statistical survey. With cinema-styled chapter titles such as "Forbidden Games," "Dates and Mates," "Tea and Sympathy," "Love Without Sex," "Sex Without Love," the book is organized into two major sections, the first, dealing with the varieties of early sexual experiences and the kinds of learning about sex they engender. The latter section deals with the morality and attitudes expressed by the students toward their sexuality.

Although the authors stated that they wished to present the autobiographical material ". . . with only brief comments so that our own personal conclusions should not intrude on the histories. . .," it does appear that they used the portrayals of male sexuality as a platform from which they expressed generalizations often reflecting their own biases rather than what facts might allow. One or two illustrations on this point might suffice: on page 81, they say ". . . Fathers seem to have more trouble talking to their sons about masturbation . . . it apparently is still 'too close to home' for them to be really comfortable. . ." and on page 155 ". . . we are today witnessing women's sexual liberation. . . . Modern women are making sexual demands on men never dreamed of by the previous generation, and larger numbers of women are displaying a degree of sexuality which was unheard of and unthinkable only ten years ago. . . ." The authors address themselves more directly to an espousal of their views in a section included in the Appendix. Here they delineate their social reconstructionist views of what is needed for an effective program of sex education.

There is no doubt that the book will attract a wide readership and, with the nature of its title, enjoy a heavy circulation among the undergraduate student population. It may very well serve as excellent supplementary reading for courses in Marriage and Family Life.

The major contribution of the volume is that it does present in print, and in the language of the student-subjects, self-reports of sexual behavior. The extracts from the personal histories would indicate that the students wrote of themselves with some candor albeit at times somewhat self-consciously.

The counseling psychologist with a background in this area and particularly those whose practice has brought them into contact with clients with sexual adjustment problems will find little, if any, new light shed upon the topic of male sexuality.—EDWARD A. WICAS, *Assistant Professor of Counselor Education, University of Connecticut.*

CHILD PSYCHOLOGY, by Arthur T. Jersild. Fifth edition. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1960. 506 pp. $7.25.

JERSILD'S fifth edition of his *Child Psychology* moves further along the path of a "self" point of view which was indicated just briefly by minor changes in the previous edition. This volume is divided into four parts, "A Child Is Born," "Self and Others," "Emotional Development," and "Expanding Horizons."

Although Part II is entitled "Self and Others," only one chapter of the five in this part is focused on the self. The other chapters are related to peers and parents.

It is difficult for this reviewer to see how Jersild has isolated self from emotional and mental development. There is still a considerable amount of compartmentalization, although the trend is toward stress on the self. For example, in chapter 6 he discusses the beginnings of self-awareness. In chapter 14, "Mind in the Making," he begins with early signs of awareness.

When this reviewer first glanced through the book, he felt there was an underlying thread rather than merely a review of empirical data. This thread of the self is there, but he wishes that it had become more the warp and woof of the book. This disappointment, perhaps, is because of the reviewer's high regard for Jersild's other works, *In Search of Self* and *When Teachers Face Themselves*.

In each part, the author adopts a developmental orientation. Part I considers ways of understanding children, presents the principles of development, and then discusses birth and early infancy, children's needs, and motor development through early childhood.

Part II, in addition to the Self chapter, presents the material on child rearing, parent child relations, and traces the development of peer life.

Part III is essentially similar to the older

editions, reviewing the various emotions separately: positive emotions; fear and anxiety; anger and hostility. It is especially in this part that more could have been done to provide links to the self.

Part IV, "Expanding Horizons," covers mental development, fantasy and dreams, reasoning and concept formation, moral and religious development, and, of course in terms of Jersild's earlier work, children's interests.

A chapter on measuring and predicting intellectual growth is sandwiched in among the above. The information is sound, and should be in the book, but probably would be better if placed more appropriately. For example, in this chapter he discusses nature-nurture in relation to intellectual ability, and the effect of family variables on intelligence. Part I deals with heredity-environment and pre-natal influences and Part II with family patterns. From a systematic point of view, the material on intelligence might better be placed in those parts than isolated into a separate chapter.

Jersild concludes with a very fine statement on "Personality—A Final View" in which he presents mostly data on how children see themselves. He ends with an excellent discussion of the importance to educators (and all who work with children) of the concepts of self-understanding and self-acceptance in creating good mental health.

The style and material presented in the book are very good. There is a wealth of data here both for the student and the practitioner in the field of personnel and guidance. Counselors and teachers will find this a valuable reference on their bookshelves.—IRA J. GORDON, *Professor of Education, University of Florida.*

AN INTRODUCTION TO EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN, by William S. Ray. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960. 254 pp. $6.50.

GUIDANCE WORKERS who want to refresh themselves in the application of analysis of variance to an experimental problem will find this an excellent book. It begins with an explanation of the common-sense meanings of analysis of variance and explains the basic statistical concepts in

an orderly way. The needs of psychological experiments are emphasized, including discussion of use of matched groups and the advantages and disadvantages of using the same subjects for different treatments. In the first 12 chapters, explanations are accompanied by examples of application of the procedures to psychological problems, rather than biological problems borrowed from Fisher which are given in many references on this subject. The last five chapters are more condensed and deal with specialized problems; however, a person who has mastered the first 12 chapters should probably be expected to be able to use the latter part of the book as reference material.

The reviewer has the duty of cautioning the reader to be aware of the specific meanings in the terminology of analysis of variance. A practitioner of analysis of variance, as the author points out, finds it a "highly gratifying experience—having the conviction that one is thinking clearly and communicating effectively." This conviction sometimes suggests the economist who finds all the answers in Marx and Engels. The nontechnical reader must be careful to note, for example, that a "significant" result is not necessarily an important one; it is only a result that is different from chance. A test may serve little use in differentiating between a "good" and a "poor" group, because equal numbers of "good" and "poor" subjects pass at any practicable cutting point; nevertheless, there may be a "significant" difference between the test means. A student may be suspended from school, an important event to him, because he has failed two subjects; nevertheless, the difference between passing and failing grades may be "insignificant."

It is no derogation of the author's treatment of the particular kind of experimental design employed in analysis of variance to point out that it is the kind in which "rejection of the null hypothesis in a test of significance is a fairly high aspiration." Such a design has often permitted a student to complete a Ph.D. dissertation in a methodical way; however, one might wish that the researcher's aspiration would go beyond a statement of significance. It is not the kind of design that led Binet to set the foundations for mental testing by developing tests of attention and reasoning on the basis of analytical case studies, that led Ebbinghaus to set the foundations for learning theory by study of results for a single extremely perceptive observer, or even that led researchers to discover through pursuit of insightful leads that high scores on the Manifest Anxiety Scale often indicate a low state of anxiety because the subject is not sufficiently anxious to dissimulate as much as an average person.

In pathfinding research, the experimenter should probably be flexible, ready to alter his course to go down a tempting byroad. Analysis of variance procedures, on the other hand, is facilitated when experimentation is done in a rigid manner. The author points out as a reprehensible example a student who permitted himself the luxury of flexible research and then had to use extremely complicated procedures to analyze results. Undue rigidity of experimentation often follows from designs formulated primarily to permit easy calculation of significance, and satisfaction with results in terms of significance alone often forestalls important discoveries. Although steps to reduce experimental error would appear to be advantageous from the viewpoint of experimental design, many such steps are decried because the data cannot then be easily handled by analysis of variance. For example, "the rearrangement of subjects may reduce the bias in the experimental comparison, but it invalidates our estimate of that bias."

The study of analysis of variance is extremely helpful for understanding the meaning of statistics. The procedures are often advantageous in dealing with data in a research study, even though the procedures are not sufficient for formulation of a complete "experimental design" in the broad sense of that term.

To properly use analysis of variance procedures, the researcher must be able to apply them within the design that is dictated by his problem. This means that he must be able to select his statistical treatment by exercising his understanding of basic concepts rather than by selection of the simplest cookbook formulation. Dr. Ray emphasizes the part played by judgment in selecting the proper procedures for statistical manipulation. He considers the term "common sense" important enough to be listed in the index. Because of the emphasis given to the meaning of the procedures, readers will find this book valuable in gaining insight to help them exercise judgment in selecting from

among procedures of analysis of variance when they are appropriate within a properly contrived experimental design.—ERNEST S. PRIMOFF, *Test Development and Occupational Research Section, United States Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C.*

LIVING A HAPPY LIFE, by F. Alexander Magoun. New York: Harper & Bros., 1960. xi + 178 pp. $3.50.

CHALLENGING the premise that happiness cannot be directly sought and found, but that it is the by-product of a way of life, the author points out that if one can control his way of life he can also control his happiness. He then indicates what he believes to be the way of life which leads to happiness. The road is marked by self-respect, love, self-fulfillment, rational religious beliefs, and faith in the future. He spells out the importance of the quest for wisdom and the blessings of work as means to happiness.

Although stronger on definition and analysis at many points than on insight, there is much wisdom in the book, and at many points it shows deep understanding of human nature and its needs. Its examples and cases are more telling than its definitions and will be more helpful to the reader.

The best chapters, in terms of likelihood of being most helpful for their insights are: II—The Need for Self-Respect; V—The Blessings of Work; VI—Faith in the Future.

Typical of his italicized definitions is "Self-fulfillment is the gradual emergence, through appropriate exertion, of the capabilities inherent in a person's aptitudes so that, at the proper times and in the pertinent ways, these capabilities develop into achievements which happily use and adequately express the distinctive nature of the particular individual" (p. 37).

Typical of his insight and inspiration is: "The two greatest rewards in life are love and achievement . . . . A man's home is half of his life and the other half is his work" (p. 98); or "The doors of time close with utter finality on yesterday and open only on tomorrow" (p. 148); or "Never resent growing old. The alternative is to die young" (p. 159).—PAUL H. LANDIS, *Washington State University.*

Publications . . . in brief

THOMAS M. MAGOON

Michigan School Testing Programs

Testing Programs in Michigan Schools, Vol. 60, No. 137, F. Womer, 1959. Bureau of School Services, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. 62 pp. Free.

This bulletin represents the report of a study conducted by the Testing and Guidance Committee of the Michigan Association of Secondary School Principals. The purpose of the study was to depict the current testing and guidance practices in the state's school systems. The contents include: incidence of testing programs; personnel involved in development of testing programs; tests used; personnel who administer, score and record tests; personnel who interpret test results and the methods employed; use of test results; financing of testing programs; scholarship testing; and the use of GED diplomas.

Three impressions this reviewer gained from this report were: (a) these types of inquiries are essential, particularly the more diversity there is in the state system; (b) there is clear evidence of continued use of personnel trained for such highly demanded services as teaching and counseling for test scoring and recording (the teacher aid plan should have much to offer in this regard); and (c) the need for a companion piece on guidance and counseling programs in the state's school systems.

Bibliography on the Executive

The Executive: Philosophy, Problems and Practices—Bibliography, 1960. Headquarters, Department of the Army, Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel, Washington 25, D. C. 39 pp.

The title underrepresents the contents of this publication. The compilers (Moskowitz and Roberts of the Army Library, Adjutant General's Office) have prepared a bibliography, but it is an annotated bibliography. The content includes the following general headings: philosophy and problems of management, executive characteristics, executive development, personnel administration and management, human relations, conference proceedings, indexes and abstracting services, professional periodicals, and a bibliography of bibliographies.

It is interesting to note that the cited publications (except certain of the bibliographies) were published since 1955. The personnel worker who keeps this in mind should find this report a ready reference on the wide range of listed topics.

Listing of Audio Aids

Educators Guide to Free Tapes, Scripts and Transcriptions, 1961. Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wis. 203 pp. $5.75.

This seventh edition of the *Guide* includes much of the old and some new material. The new material includes several demonstration tapes (Minnesota Mining) on getting the most instructional mileage from this medium, 30 new tapes, over 100 new scripts, and 24 new transcriptions. The topics on which the guidebook has materials include conservation, guidance and mental health, home economics, language arts, music, safety and accident prevention, and social studies. The indices clearly spell out how to contact each different supplier, the various loan procedures, and instruction as to types of recording equipment which the reader might be interested in purchasing or renting.

Particularly, the tape medium suggests to this reviewer unlimited possibilities for instruction. Organizations such as APGA or its divisional units might well consider the type of content material with which they are most expert and the use to which such materials might be put if they were in readily reproducible form for use with regional groups, in-service training programs, and the like.

Educating the Adolescent Mental Patient

Secondary Education in a State Mental Hospital—Progress Report, 1960. NIMH Grant OM-372; Project Directors—G. Brooks & D. Eldred. Vermont State Hospital, Waterburg, Vt. 41 pp.

This cooperative program research investigation was devised to promote the educational development of educable adolescent mental hospital patients and in turn to determine the therapeutic effectiveness of such program experiences. The program relies heavily on correspondence course materials plus an intensive tutorial relationship with one teacher employed for this purpose. Evaluations are regularly made by all hospital personnel regarding educational and psychological changes occurring in the participants. Parents are also involved through establishment of a PTA program. Much pre- and progress testing is involved (achievement tests, ratings, WAIS, and Rorschach testing). After six months of operation the project directors report the common reaction of those involved with the program to be one of considerable enthusiasm. They conclude by expressing the belief that a secondary education program is the most realistic and therapeutically effective group activity for adolescent patients.

Independent Study—First in Series

Independent Study: New Dimensions in Higher Education, No. 1, W. Hatch & A. Bennet, 1960. Division of Higher Education, U. S. Office of Education. 36 pp. $.25 through USGPO, Washington 25, D. C.

This publication is the first in a new series introduced by the Office of Education and designed to consider different problems and issues confronting American higher education. Each publication will present relevant research and promising practices.

This first issue is devoted to independent study, meaning the type of study programs where greater than usual responsibility is placed upon the student. The contents include honors programs; independent study programs; the interest in independent study; the scope, context, and economics of independent study; and needed research.

The materials included come from a wide range of sources and involve a wide variability in the rigor of their presentations. With reference to the extent of independent study, a 1957 survey revealed that there were 334 independent study programs among 1,000 programs studied in 286 institutions.

In general, the accumulated material would be quite difficult to acquire, and for this reason this new series should make a real contribution.

Job Guide for Young Workers

Job Guide for Young Workers, 1960–1961 edition, 1960. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security, U. S. Employment Service. 72 pp. $.45 through USGPO, Washington 25, D. C.

This latest edition of the *Job Guide* was prepared with the assistance of state employment security agencies. It opens with a section on general advisement to young job seekers. This is followed by short- and long-range general employment outlook information. The bulk of the guide is devoted to descriptions of more than 10 entry occupations frequently held by young persons with a high school education or less. For each of these entry occupations, typical duties, qualifications, modes of entry, prospects for employment and for advancement are indicated.

The broad areas of entry occupations covered include semi-professional and technical, clerical and sales, service, apprenticeship, mechanics and repairmen, production jobs, material handlers, construction, delivery jobs, and agricultural and marine positions.

In summary, a neatly presented report whose format and readability suggest it should really function as a guide for youth entering the world of work.

Association Activities

CARL McDANIELS, EDITOR

The Branches in Highlight

The European Branch

THE EUROPEAN BRANCH OF THE AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION easily holds the distinction of being the Association's most far-flung branch. Its members serve in an area which includes American elementary and high schools from Asmara to London and from the Azores to Turkey. Most of the Branch's members are United States citizens working in American schools in this wide area. Originally all of the counselors in these American schools were employed by the Department of the Army, but as the numbers of American children in Europe grew, the Air Force and the Navy organized their own schools.

Serving a vast majority of the 484,000 dependents of American personnel abroad, these schools are unique in the very high turnover among students and faculty. This factor alone has given the counselors a very heavy responsibility in the field of guidance in its broadest sense. The fact there is less turnover among counselors than among other faculty members as a whole has added even greater importance to their role.

An Important Notice

for APGA Members

A complete revision of the APGA Constitution and By-Laws is inserted in the back of this issue of the *Journal.* After acceptance, revision, or modification by the Assembly at the 1961 Convention, the Constitution will be submitted to the members for a mail vote.

Perhaps one reason for this lower rate of turnover is the unusual challenge and knowledge that one can make a most tangible contribution. Because of the unique location and the conditions of living in a foreign country, counselors are called upon to deal realistically with vocational and personal problems without the usual help of the local colleges, industries, and other social agencies available to counselors at home.

To attain these goals counselors maintain programs of group guidance in educational and career planning to supplement individual counseling. Another unique aspect of the work of the member of the European Branch is the dormitory life of some of the dependents which intensifies the problems of inter-personal relations.

American counselors in Europe have been meeting regularly since 1952. In the school year 1958–1959, the European Branch was formally organized in Germany and received its APGA charter the following spring.

Two meetings are held each year during October and February in Munich, Heidelberg, or Frankfurt. These gatherings help the morale of the 61 members and promote professional growth as common problems are discussed.

The current officers of the European Branch are: President—Bryan Gray, Research Specialist, Headquarters, U. S. Army Dependents' Education Group, APO 164, New York, New York; and Secretary-Treasurer—Evelyn Thompson, Counselor, Munich American High School, APO 407, New York, New York. The office of president-elect is vacant at the present time.

WHO'S WHO

and Where

We are eager to reflect in this column news of the professional activities and job changes of our members. Please keep us informed. Notices should be sent to the attention of the Assistant Editor.—Ed.

George W. Rogers, who obtained his Ph.D. from The Ohio State University in 1959, is Director of the University Counseling Service, University of Kentucky, Lexington.

Lester N. Recktenwald, formerly Assistant Professor of Psychology at Villanova University, is now Associate Professor of Psychology at the University of Scranton where he is teaching psychology and guidance courses in the Graduate Division.

Maurice La Follette is now Guidance Director and Coordinator, Fremont County Schools, Sidney, Iowa.

Charles A. Jankowske has been promoted from Guidance Director of Clio Area Schools, Clio, Michigan, to Administrative Assistant for Guidance and Curriculum.

G. Gordon Ellis, formerly with the Department of Vocational Education at Iowa State University, is now Director, Student Personnel Services, Phoenix Union High Schools and Phoenix College System.

Sumner Berlyn, Director of the Nassau Guidance Service, has been appointed Instructor in Psychology in the Evening Division of the Nassau Community College, Mineola, Long Island, New York.

Stephen J. Golburgh has been appointed Instructor in Psychology and Guidance at Boston University College of Basic Studies, Boston, Massachusetts.

Ellis Batten Page has left his position with Eastern Michigan University to become Dean of the College of Education and Professor of Education and Psychology at Texas Woman's (State) University in Denton, Texas.

Vinita Stevens, a recent graduate of Washington University with a master's degree in Guidance and Counseling, is Freshman Counselor in charge of Orientation and Group Guidance at Beaumont High School, St. Louis, Missouri.

Stephen C. Clark, who was Test Officer at the Los Angeles State College, is now Research Associate with the California Teachers Association in Burlingame, California.

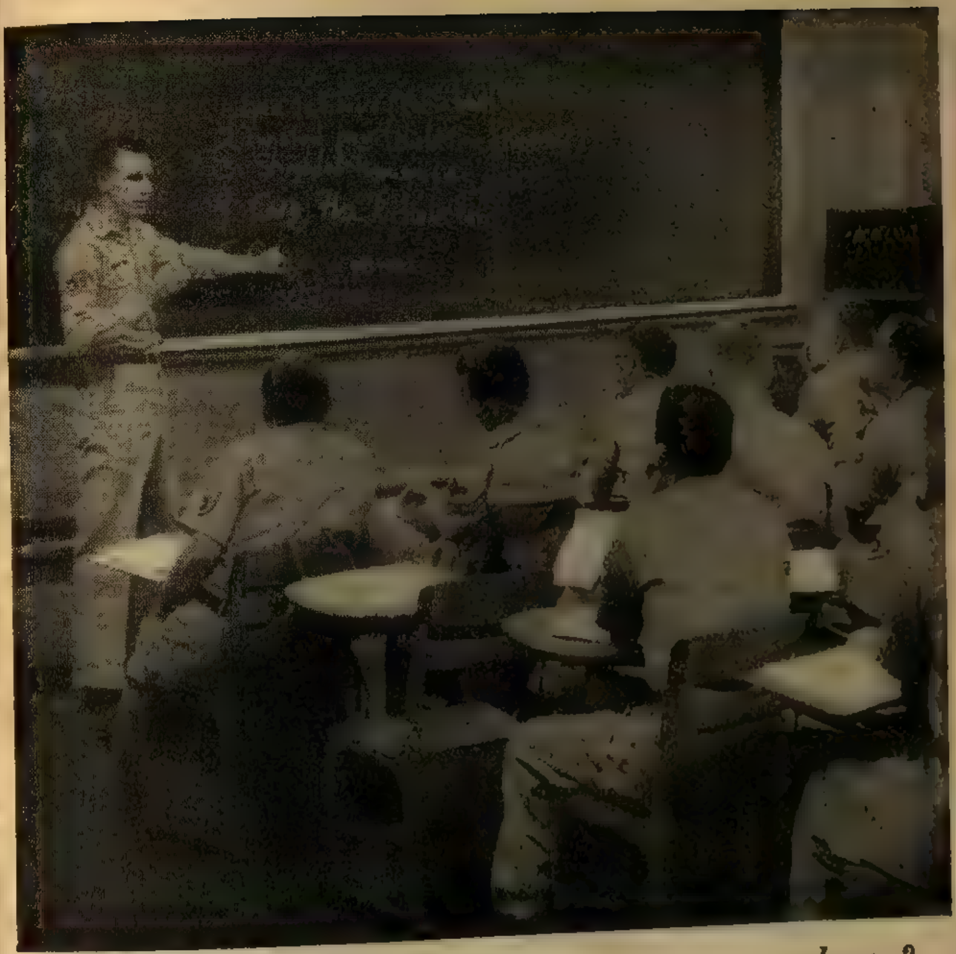
Claire A. Krucher, formerly Psychometrist with the Psychological Corporation, New York City, is now Assistant to the Director, Placement Bureau, Douglass College, New Brunswick, New Jersey.

J. Alfred McCauslin became Dean of Student Affairs at the Bloomsburg State College, Bloomsburg, Pennsylvania on September 1, 1960. Prior to this appointment, Dean McCauslin was Dean of Student Life at Wilmington College, Wilmington, Ohio.

George M. Murphy, who was Guidance Counselor at Plymouth High School, Plymouth, Massachusetts, is now Counselor in the Litchfield, Connecticut, Public Schools.

Bernard A. Benoit, a former Rehabilitation Counselor, is now serving as Regional Supervisor, Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, East Central Region, State of Illinois, in Kankakee.

Richard Koebler has been promoted from the position of Rehabilitation Counselor to that of Regional Supervisor, Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, Northern Region, State of Illinois, with headquarters in Rockford.



National Association of Student Personnel Administrators

The National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) was founded in 1919 by Dean Thomas Arkle Clark of the University of Illinois, and Dean Scott H. Goodnight of the University of Wisconsin. The original organization adopted the name, The National Association of Deans and Advisers of Men, and this title was continued until the 33rd anniversary conference in 1951 when the title was changed to the present one. From the start the Association adopted the policy of institutional rather than individual memberships and this was formalized in a constitution adopted in 1932.

The purpose of the Association is to discuss and study the most effective methods of aiding students in their intellectual, social, moral, and personal development.

The institutions which are the constituent members of the Association are represented by those who are primarily concerned with the administration of student personnel programs in colleges and universities of the United States. Recognizing that many specialized abilities contribute to meeting student needs, this Association seeks to provide and stimulate leadership for the effective combination and utilization of all these resources.

As the student personnel program is affected by and affects the entire educational endeavor, this Association cooperates with those agencies and associations which represent higher education, government, community resources, and specialized interest in student personnel work. (Article II of the NASPA Constitution)

Four-year degree granting educational institutions approved by their regional accrediting bodies are eligible for membership. Each institution designates its official representative. There were 340 member institutions in 1960, representing institutions in 50 states, Puerto Rico, and Canada.

The work of the Association is done by the Annual Conference and the Executive Committee and various committees and commissions. In 1960, active commissions were devoted to professional relationships, professional and legal principles and problems, development and training of student personnel administrators, programs and practices, relations with the behavorial sciences, and religious activities. There are numerous ad hoc and permanent committees devoted to special areas of interest. Since 1925 the Association has worked in cooperation with practically every recognized association of higher education, and in 1938 called the initial meeting with eight other groups seeking to coordinate and improve inter-association relationships. An outstanding activity began in 1954 when the Commission on Development and Training in cooperation with the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, and with foundation support, conducted national and regional studies at the Business School and regionally with the Business School faculty in 1955, 1955, 1956, and 1957.

The publications of the Association have been the Annual Proceedings which are verbatim reports of all conferences since 1919 and a monthly News Letter from the Secretary to all member institutions. Through the years there have been special publications of bibliographies, special papers, reports of studies, and casebook material drawn from the Harvard Seminars.

Relationships with APGA have been cordial and cooperative since 1938 when Council of Personnel and Guidance was included in the Inter-association Conference called by this Association. Most recently the Association has provided representation and active participation in the Inter-Organizational Commission. The majority of institutional representatives in NASPA hold individual memberships in one or more Divisions of APGA.

The Secretary-Treasurer of the NASPA is Dean Carl W. Knox, 157 Administration Building, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

The Gap Gage Our Last Big Push: Let's Put It Over

DINNY DUNSMOOR, DIRECTOR
APGA PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ADVANCEMENT PROGRAM

As I PREPARE this copy for the February *Journal,* time seems to be rushing madly on toward January 28, 1961, the Second Anniversary of the purchase of our new APGA HQ in Washington, D. C. This is also the "due date" for our next GAP payments.

Right now our major GAP concern is: Will we have enough cash on hand in GAP on January 28 to "polish off" the remaining $4,000 of our Construction Loan (originally $50,000); to make the next payment of $7,500 due on our mortgage (originally $150,000 and now down to $127,500); to pay some $3,500 in loan and mortgage interest due (We've paid to date nearly $12,000 in interest, and our next payment will bring this interest total to about $15,500); and to take care of some $4,000 additional "completion bills." All this, then, totals up to about *$19,000 cash we must have on hand on January 28, 1961.*

By the time you read this in late January we will have been going all out for some 90 days to raise this $1,000 through completion gifts, special gifts, branch gifts, further sale of a limited number of Life Subscriptions, payments on Life Subscriptions, income from dues, and the like. We hope to have raised a considerable part of this amount. But, we will still be in urgent need of your "Completion Contribution" of $10 or more.

This is probably "old hat" to many of you, but your "Completion Gift" of $10 to GAP now will do these things for APGA'S GAP: (1) *Decrease* our mortgage loan by $10; (2) at the same time *increase* APGA'S net assets as an association by this amount; and (3) save APGA 55 cents in interest payments this year, 55 cents next year, and so on each year so long as our mortgage loan shall run. If our mortgage is not paid off ahead of schedule—8 more years to run from January 28, 1961—your $10 gift now will thus save APGA $4.40 in interest payments and hence keep down what will prove to be the total cost of our new HQ by $4.40. Therefore, your gift of $10 actually means $14.40 to APGA (and you really won't miss it once it is made). Where else can you spend $10 that will do both you and your profession so much good? So, if you haven't already sent your "completion gift" to GAP, *do it today—don't delay.*

What we hope will be the last big push for GAP is now on. It is the desire of our Executive Council to complete our active campaign for GAP funds by the end of our current fiscal year, April 30, 1961. By then it is hoped that there will be no more construction loan, the mortgage will be reduced to $120,000 or perhaps a somewhat smaller figure, and HQ will be completely renovated for fullest utilization of available space and be completely equipped with the essential and desirable office equipment and furniture. APGA's operation demands an adequate and modernly equipped office and this is one thing that our combined GAP efforts have been trying to make possible the past three or four years. Our Executive Director and his efficient staff have been most patient and helpful during this somewhat prolonged transition period.

When all of our "completion activities" have been completed, then and only then can GAP focus its attention on the systematic reduction and eventual elimination of our mortgage without further promotional activities. APGA, with the pressure off both GAP and the Operating Budget, will be in a position to move ahead much more effectively on the major job it is designed to do: Render the highest possible quality of service to our membership and our personnel and guidance profession. Great strides have already been taken in this direction and need not be reiterated here. Further progress requires the *active* support of each of us. YOUR HELP is needed now to "Get the Job Done in Sixty-One."

Proposed Revision

of the

CONSTITUTION

of the

American Personnel and Guidance Association

1961

Constitution of the American Personnel and Guidance Association

UPON AUTHORIZATION of the Executive Council, the Constitution Committee hereby submits to the members of APGA a complete revision of the Constitution and By-Laws. The Constitution Committee has worked for two years on this. The revision will be presented formally to the Assembly meeting in Denver on March 27, 1961. According to present Constitution, the By-Laws may be amended by the Assembly at the Convention. The Constitution, after acceptance, revision, or modification by the Assembly, must be submitted to the members by mail vote. Since this is a complete revision, the motion to amend the By-Laws will include the proviso that the revision will become effective after a mail vote of the membership has approved the revision of the Constitution. Publication of the proposed revision at this time constitutes the official notification to the membership in accordance with the existing Constitution. This revision has been reviewed and cleared for its legal aspects by our General Counsel.

The Executive Council voted to make a thorough study and revision of the Constitution and By-Laws because the current documents are so rigid and in some parts so obsolete that continual amending of the Constitution and By-Laws would be necessary unless a thorough revision were instituted. The Constitution Committee has developed this complete revision that creates a more flexible Constitution by adhering to principles in the Constitution rather than to restricted modes of action. The revisions of the By-Laws give sufficient detail to facilitate the operation of the Association with the best practices that can be developed at this time. The revision of both the Constitution and By-Laws make it possible to arrange for the specific details of membership by motions to the Assembly rather than by developing a number of rigid specifications within the Constitution. Provision is made in the revision for dropping persons from membership because of conduct detrimental to the Association. (APGA will have a Code of Ethics to support this provision.) The committees that have become obsolete have been dropped and the missions of the standing committees have been more clearly stated. The requirement is made that the officers of each APGA branch must be members of APGA. An Executive Committee is formally created to facilitate carrying out the work of this large organization.

Respectfully submitted,
THE CONSTITUTION COMMITTEE, APGA
Gail F. Farwell, Chairman
George W. Burchill
James W. Costar
Anthony C. Riccio

Article I

Name and Purposes

SECTION 1. *Name.* The name of this Association shall be THE AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION.

SECTION 2. *Purposes*

(a) The purposes of the American Personnel and Guidance Association are: to advance the scientific discipline of personnel and guidance work; to conduct and foster programs of education in the field of personnel and guidance and to promote sound personnel and guidance practices in the interests of society; by stimulating, promoting, and conducting programs of scientific research and of education in the field of personnel and guidance work; publishing scientific, educational, and professional literature; advancing high standards of professional conduct; and conducting scientific, educational, and professional meetings and conferences.

Article II

Membership

SECTION 1. *Types of Membership.* Membership shall be of one type—individual.

SECTION 2. *Individual Members.*

(a) An individual member in good standing is a person whose primary responsibilities or interests are in the area of guidance, counseling or personnel work and whose preparation or position is such as to qualify him for membership, as defined in the By-Laws, in one of the Divisions of the Association. To remain in good standing, an individual member must be elected to membership in one of the Divisions of the Association within one year of his entrance into the Association.

(b) Each individual member in good standing shall be entitled to vote as a member of the Association, to attend conventions and meetings of the Association, and shall be eligible to hold office in the Association.

(c) Any individual member in good standing may qualify for life membership in the Association and its Divisions.

(d) A member may be dropped from membership for nonpayment of dues or for conduct which in any wise tends to injure the Association or to affect adversely its reputation or which is contrary to or destructive of its objects. No member shall be dropped except after opportunity to be heard as provided in the By-Laws.

SECTION 3. *Property Interest of Members.* No member shall have any severable or transferable interest in the property of the Association.

Article III

Divisions

SECTION 1. *Organization of Divisions*

(a) The Association shall include one or more Divisions, each of which shall have at least 100 members who have a common interest in guidance, counseling or personnel work.

(1) The major purposes of the Division shall be in accord with those of the Association.

(2) The Division shall be organized in accordance with the stipulations of the Association's Constitution and By-Laws.

SECTION 2. *Autonomy of Divisions*

(a) A Division of the Association shall be autonomous in the conduct of its affairs, consistent with this Constitution and the By-Laws of the Association.

(b) An organization becoming a Division of the Association may retain its name or may adopt another name but, in all instances, shall identify itself as "A Division of the American Personnel and Guidance Association." A Division organized on petition of individual members of the Association must include in its name or identify with its name said words, "A Division of the American Personnel and Guidance Association."

(c) A Division may organize and charter Branches subject to their being chartered as APGA branches as well as Divisional Branches.

(d) Each Division shall have a president and such other officers and committees as the Division may determine, and shall designate representatives to serve as members of the Senate and representatives to serve as members of the Executive Council.

Article IV

Conventions

SECTION 1. *Frequency, Time and Place of Conventions.* The Association shall meet in convention at least every two years. The time and place of each such convention shall be fixed by the Executive Council and notice thereof shall be given to the individual members and organization members at least sixty (60) days prior to the time so fixed.

SECTION 2. *Conduct of Conventions.* The President of the Association shall preside at conventions and, in his absence, the President-elect shall preside.

Article V

The Senate

SECTION 1. *Composition of the Senate.*

(a) The Senate shall be composed of the President, President-elect, Past-President, Treasurer, and

Treasurer-elect of the Association, representatives of Divisions, and of Branches. Each Division shall be represented in the Senate as follows:

(1) For the first 1,000 members of a Division or any fraction thereof—2 representatives for each 100 members or major fraction thereof.

(2) For the second 1,000 members of a Division, 1 representative for each 100 members or major fraction thereof.

(3) For each 500 members or major fraction thereof in excess of the first 2,000 members of the Division—1 representative.

(b) Each Branch chartered by this Association shall have representation in the Senate as follows:

(1) For the first 199 Branch members of APGA or fraction thereof—one representative.

(2) For 200 or more Branch members of APGA—one additional representative.

(c) A person may represent in the Senate only one Division or one Branch. And he shall be a duly elected delegate and so identified to the Senate Credentials Committee.

SECTION 2. *Functions of the Senate*

(a) The Senate shall be the legislative body of the Association and its function shall be as follows:

(1) To take action on recommendations from the Executive Council;

(2) To grant, or to deny for cause, petitions for the formation of new Divisions and for the admission to the Association of organizations with Divisional status;

(3) To act on the reports of the Executive Council, Divisions, standing committees, and such special committees as are responsible to the Senate;

(4) To adopt and to amend By-Laws in harmony with this Constitution;

(5) To exercise such other functions as may be necessary or desirable in the best interests of the Association, not in conflict with this Constitution or the By-Laws;

(6) To initiate action affecting matters of the Association's program, activities and policies.

SECTION 3. *Meetings of the Senate*

(a) The Senate shall meet at and during conventions of the Association. Additional meetings of the Senate may be called by a majority vote of the members of the Senate or by the Executive Council, and the time and place of such additional meetings shall be fixed by the Executive Council; notice thereof shall be given to the presidents of Divisions and Branches at least twenty (20) days prior to each such additional meeting in order that they may notify their Senate members.

(b) The President of the Association shall preside at meetings of the Senate and, in his absence, the President-elect shall preside.

(c) Each member of the Senate shall have one vote as such and a majority of the members of the Senate shall constitute a quorum.

(d) Duly authorized representatives to the Senate shall be provided certifying credentials by the competent authority.

Article VI

Officers of the Association

SECTION 1. *Officers and Terms of Office*

(a) The officers of the Association shall be the President, the President-elect, the immediate Past-President, the Treasurer, the Treasurer-elect, and the Executive Director.

(b) All officers of the Association, except the Executive Director, shall be elected at large from among the individual members of the Association and shall serve for one year term or until their successors are elected.

(c) The Executive Director shall be appointed by the Executive Council, shall be Secretary of the Corporation, and shall serve at its pleasure within the terms of employment between the Executive Council and the Executive Director.

(d) The President-elect shall automatically become President of the Association one year after the commencement of his term of office as President-elect, or upon the death or resignation of the President.

(e) The Treasurer-elect shall automatically become Treasurer of the Association one year after the commencement of his term of office as Treasurer-elect or upon the death or resignation of the Treasurer.

(f) An elected officer shall not be a candidate to succeed himself in office or in the future a candidate for the same office, provided, however, that a President-elect or Treasurer-elect succeeding to the office of the President or Treasurer respectively by reason of death or resignation of the President or Treasurer shall serve his full one-year term as President or Treasurer in addition to serving the unexpired term of the resigned or deceased President or Treasurer.

SECTION 2. *Duties of Officers*

(a) The President shall be the chief elected officer of the Association, shall preside at all conventions of the Association, shall be Chairman of and preside at meetings of the Senate, and shall be Chairman of and preside at meetings of the Executive Council and of the Executive Committee. The President shall appoint the members of all committees, except as otherwise specified in this Constitution or the By-Laws, and shall be an ex-officio member of all committees.

(b) The President-elect shall perform the duties of the President in the absence or incapacity of the President.

(c) The Treasurer shall represent the Association in assuring the receipt and expenditure of funds in accordance with the directives established by the Executive Council, and shall be under such bond as determined by the Executive Council.

(d) The Treasurer-elect shall perform the duties of the Treasurer in the absence or incapacity of the Treasurer and shall be under such bond as may be determined by the Executive Council.

(e) The Executive Director shall serve as the executive officer of the Association and each of the Divisions, and he shall serve as the legally designated Secretary of the Corporation. He shall perform such duties as may be delegated to him by the Senate, the Executive Council, and the officers of the Association, and shall be under bond for such amount as may be determined by the Executive Council.

SECTION 3. *Compensation and Expenses of Officers*

(a) None of the elected officers of the Association shall receive any compensation for their services as such to the Association. The necessary expenses of the elected officers of the Association may be paid from the funds of the Association under the policies of the Executive Council established for such payments.

(b) The Executive Director shall be paid such compensation from the funds of the Association as may be fixed from time to time by the Executive Council. The necessary expenses of the Executive Director of the Association shall be paid from the funds of the Association under the policies of the Executive Council established for such payments.

Article VII

The Executive Council

SECTION 1. *Composition of the Executive Council.* The Executive Council shall be composed of the following members:

(a) The President, the President-elect, the immediate Past-President, the Treasurer, and the Treasurer-elect of the Association.

(b) The president and one other representative of each Division of the Association.

(c) The Executive Director of the Association, as an ex-officio member without vote, who shall serve as Secretary to the Executive Council.

SECTION 2. *Functions of the Executive Council*

(a) The Executive Council shall be the policy making board of the Association and its function shall be as follows:

(1) To formulate policies and recommend such policies to the Senate for its consideration;

(2) To formulate policies appropriate for executive action and direct the execution thereof;

(3) To perform the functions of the Senate in the interim between meetings of the Senate;

(4) To make decisions or refer to the appropriate body for decision, items of major importance in the Association.

SECTION 3. *Meetings of the Executive Council*

(a) The Executive Council shall meet at the time and place of the national convention and at least one other time during the year at such time and place as designated by the President.

(b) The Executive Council must have a quorum present consisting of at least one-half of the members of the Executive Council, not counting the Executive Director.

Article VIII

Property of the Association

SECTION 1. All property of the Association shall be subject to the control and management of the Executive Council. Upon dissolution of the Association, none of its property shall be distributed to any of the members and all of such property shall be transferred to such other organization or organizations as the Executive Council shall determine to have purposes and activities most nearly consonant to those of the Association, provided, that such other organization or organizations shall be exempt under Section 501 (c) (3) of the Internal Revenue Code or corresponding provision of the internal revenue laws.

Article IX

Committees

SECTION 1. Committees of the Association, both standing committees and special committees, may be created to promote the purposes of the Association and shall consist of members of the Association, with their number, jurisdiction, method of selection, and tenure determined in accordance with the By-Laws.

SECTION 2. *Standing Committees.* The Association shall have the following standing committees, each of which shall perform such functions as may be prescribed by the Senate or the Executive Council and by this Constitution:

(a) *Convention.* The Convention Committee shall recommend the theme of the annual convention, and prepare that aspect of the program which is the sole responsibility of the Association. In addition, it shall be the function of this committee to coordinate the Divisional programs and to provide suitable facilities and arrangements for all convention meetings.

(b) *Credentials.* The Credentials Committee

shall identify and certify eligible members to serve in the Senate of the Association.

(c) *Ethics.* The Committee on Ethics shall be charged with the responsibility of entertaining charges against individual members, Divisions or Branches in violation of the Code of Ethics of the Association and to make recommendations to the Executive Council as set forth in the Constitution and By-Laws of the Association.

(d) *Executive.* The Executive Committee shall consist of the President, President-elect, immediate Past-President, Treasurer, the Treasurer-elect, and Executive Director ex-officio. The Executive Committee shall act during the interim when the Executive Council is not in session. It shall act for the Executive Council but within policies established by the Executive Council.

(e) *Finance.* The Finance Committee shall consider long-range fiscal policies affecting the Association, and shall make recommendations regarding such policies to the Senate or the Executive Council, as appropriate.

(f) *Membership.* The Membership Committee shall be responsible for the major membership work of the Association and for the coordination of membership activities of the Association.

(g) *Nomination and Election Committee.* The Nomination and Election Committee shall be charged with conducting fair nomination and election procedures for electing officers of the Association.

(h) *Professional Preparation and Standards.* The Professional Preparation and Standards Committee shall be responsible for recommending guidelines for the professional preparation of workers in guidance and personnel work.

(i) *Publications.* The Publications Committee shall recommend to the Executive Council appropriate action affecting over-all publication policies of the Association, and affecting periodicals or other publications of the Association and the Divisions.

(j) *Research Awards.* The Research Awards Committee shall be charged with screening and evaluating appropriate research activities and making recommendations therefrom for the Research Awards granted by the Association.

Article X

Branches of the Association

SECTION 1. A group of individual members of the Association desiring to organize and be chartered as a Branch of the American Personnel and Guidance Association shall file application with the Executive Director.

SECTION 2. A Branch of the Association shall be autonomous in the conduct of its affairs, consistent with this Constitution and the By-Laws of the Association.

SECTION 3. A Branch may have its charter revoked by the Senate on the recommendation of the Executive Council for due cause.

Article XI

By-Laws

SECTION 1. *Adoption and Amendment.* By-Laws consistent with this Constitution shall be adopted or amended from time to time by a majority vote of those certified representatives present at a meeting of the Senate.

SECTION 2. *Proposed Amendments.* The By-Laws may be amended by either of the following methods.

(a) Amendments submitted to the members of the Senate thirty or more days in advance of the first meeting of the Senate may be voted upon at the first meeting of the Senate.

(b) Amendments may be proposed at the first meeting of the Senate and such proposed amendments may be voted upon at a subsequent meeting of the Senate during the same convention period.

Article XII

Amendment of Constitution

SECTION 1. *Amendment.* This Constitution may be amended by the affirmative vote, by mail, of at least two-thirds of the individual members of the Association actually voting. Proposals to amend the Constitution may be initiated by the Senate, the Executive Council, or an individual member. Such proposals must be in writing and, if initiated by an individual member, they shall be signed by at least 100 individual members in good standing of the Association and be delivered to the President at least 90 days prior to the meeting of the Senate at which such proposed amendments are to be considered. Copies of such proposed amendments shall be made available to all members of the Association and all members of the Senate at least thirty days prior to such meeting of the Senate. All proposed amendments shall be considered by the Senate and if acted upon favorably by the Senate, shall be submitted to vote of the individual members of the Association. In the event it is impossible or not feasible, due to an emergency, to submit such proposed amendments to the Senate, the Executive Council may submit such proposed amendments to vote by the individual members, but not earlier than thirty days after copies of such proposed amendments have been made available to all individual members of the Association.

Article XIII

Rules of Order

SECTION 1. *Robert's Rules of Order Revised* (by Henry Martin Robert) shall govern the proceedings of the Association not otherwise specified in the Constitution and By-Laws.

SECTION 2. The By-Laws of the Association may be suspended by a two-thirds vote of those members present at a meeting of the Senate.

By-Laws of the American Personnel and Guidance Association

Article I

Name and Purposes

SECTION 1. The name of the Association shall be employed in connection with all official business and activities of the Association. The name of the Association shall not be used by organizations or agencies without the approval of the Executive Council.

Article II

Election to Membership and Association Dues

SECTION 1. *Membership Committee.* The President of the Association shall appoint at least one member from each Division of the Association to serve as a Membership Committee and also shall appoint one additional member to serve as its chairman.

SECTION 2. *Individual Members.* Every eligible person desiring to become a member of the Association shall apply for membership to the Association. A person shall become a member of the Association upon election to membership and payment of his dues. To remain in good standing, the individual member must be elected to membership in one of the Divisions of the Association within one year of his entrance into the Association. During this period of time he shall be designated as a Provisional Member.

SECTION 3. *Special Membership.* The Senate, upon the recommendation of the Executive Council, shall prescribe and establish criteria for special membership in the Association. These memberships shall be consistent with the Constitution and By-Laws of the Association.

SECTION 4. *Emeritus Membership.* Members who, having reached the age of sixty-five years, and having been a member of at least one Division or its antecedent for at least twenty years, may request Emeritus Membership under qualifications set forth by the Executive Council. Emeritus Membership is granted to an individual by vote of the Executive Council upon recommendation by a Division. Emeritus Membership carries exemption from the payment of dues in APGA and one Division, but retains all the rights and privileges of dues-paying membership.

SECTION 5. *Severance of Members.* Charges of unbecoming conduct shall not be entertained against a member unless a complaint in writing stating the exact nature of the charges is submitted to the Committee on Ethics which shall have the power to determine whether the charges shall be dropped, whether the accused shall be given the opportunity to resign, or whether the charge shall be referred to the Executive Council for review and possible action. Conviction of a member by a court of competent jurisdiction of a crime involving moral turpitude automatically brings the case, without necessity of formal complaints, before the Committee on Ethics; the member may be dropped by the Executive Council without the necessity of a hearing. In all other instances, whenever charges are referred to the Executive Council, no person shall be dropped from membership without the benefit of a hearing in person, or represented by counsel, and then only by a three-fourths vote of the Executive Council present at the Council meeting which considers the matter.

SECTION 6. *Amount of Dues*

(a) Dues for individual members of the Association shall be determined by the Executive Council and approved by the Senate.

(b) Upon payment of life membership dues as established by the Executive Council and approved by the Senate an individual in good standing in a Division is exempted from further dues for life in APGA and in the Division in which he has the primary Divisional membership; such persons may be designated as Life Subscribers; the number of Life Subscribers in any Division shall not exceed five per cent of the membership of the Division.

(c) Dues for special membership classifications of the Association shall be determined by the Executive Council and approved by the Senate.

(d) An individual member shall become inactive for non-payment of his dues within 60 days after the date fixed for payment thereof; all inactive members shall be automatically reinstated as members in good standing upon payment of their dues within *six months* from such due date. An inactive member not paying his dues within said *six months period* shall be automatically dropped from the membership roll at the expiration of such period.

SECTION 7. *Dues Payment.* All dues shall be paid in advance and shall be due and payable on such date as may be fixed by the Executive Council. Dues in excess of one year may be accepted under conditions established by the Executive Council.

SECTION 8. *Divisional Dues.* Payment of his dues to the Association by an individual member shall entitle such member to membership in one Division of the Association without additional dues and shall also entitle such member to membership in one or more additional Divisions of the Association upon payment of additional dues, as established by the Executive Council and approved by the Senate, for each Division in which membership is desired.

SECTION 9. *Allocation of Dues.* The Executive Council shall, by affirmative vote of a majority of its members, allocate among the Divisions portions of the membership dues collected by the Association, in such proportions as the Executive Council may deem proper, after provision for payment of the obligations and expenses of the Association.

Article III

Divisions

SECTION 1. *Formation of Divisions.* Groups desiring Division status shall initiate their intent through the office of the Executive Director. Application for Divisional status must have approval of a majority of the Executive Council and of the Senate of the Association.

SECTION 2. *Petition for Division Status.* Any group of 100 or more individual members of the Association having a common professional interest may petition the Senate for permission to organize a Division.

SECTION 3. *Filing of Audit.* At the end of each fiscal year, each Division shall file an annual audit in the Executive Office of the Association.

Article IV

Conventions

SECTION 1. *Convention Site and Date.* Responsibility for establishing the site and date of the Association convention shall be that of the Executive Council. The duly appointed Convention Committee shall execute the plans of the convention with the approval of the Executive Council.

Article V

The Senate

SECTION 1. *Business at Hand.* The Senate shall receive at its convocation the reports of the officers, Executive Director, standing and special committees as specified by the Constitution and By-Laws of the Association. Appropriate legislative action will take place as determined by a majority vote of the Senate.

SECTION 2. *Business from the Floor.* Any delegate may present business for Senate consideration.

Article VI

Officers of the Association

SECTION 1. *Election of Officers.* The procedures for election of officers shall be:

(a) *Nomination and Election.* Each Division of the Association shall designate one of its members to act as its representative on the Nomination and Election Committee of the Association. The committee shall be composed of such representatives and a chairman who shall be appointed by the President of the Association.

(b) *Nominations.* The Nominating Committee shall canvass by mail the individual members of the Association for nominations to the elective offices of the Association and, guided thereby, shall prepare a slate containing not less than two nor more than three names for each office. The Nominations Committee shall place on the ballot the names of at least the two eligible individuals who have received the highest number of nominating votes, if they are willing to serve.

(c) *Elections.* The Nominating Committee shall conduct the election of officers by secret ballot, mailed to the individual members of the Association not later than February 1 in the election year. The Nomination and Election Committee shall canvass the returns of each election and shall certify to the Executive Council the results of such election not later than March 15 of the election year. Candidates shall be notified of the outcome of their candidacy, and the election schedule shall be adjusted so that this notification may take place at least two weeks prior to the opening of the national convention.

(d) *Taking of Office.* The results of each election shall be announced and the new officers shall take office at the end of the terms of their predecessors in office which shall be on May 1 of each year.

SECTION 2. *Officer Functions.* The functions of the officers of the Associations shall be in accord with the Constitution of the Association.

(a) *Elected Officers.* Elected officers shall discharge their duties as administrative representatives of their constituents.

(b) *Appointed Officers.* Appointed officers shall execute the business of the Association as approved by the elected officials, the Executive Council, and the Senate of the Association.

(1) The Executive Director shall be empowered to affix the seal and authorize official documents of the Association as Secretary of the Corporation; and to conduct the business of the Association as delegated.

Article VII

The Executive Council Reports and Audits

SECTION 1. *Reports of Elected Officers.* The President and Treasurer of the Association shall make annual reports to the Association. The Treasurer's report shall be in writing and filed with the Executive Council.

SECTION 2. *Report of Executive Director.* The Executive Director shall make an annual report in writing to the Association and shall make such other reports as may be required from time to time by the Executive Council. All such reports shall be filed with the Executive Council.

SECTION 3. *Audits.* The Treasurer shall make an interim report to the Senate at the national convention. At the conclusion of the fiscal year and as soon thereafter as possible, the Treasurer's annual report shall be examined and audited, at the expense of the Association, by a certified public accountant and such examination and audit shall include an examination and audit of the accounts of the Executive Director.

SECTION 4. *Distribution of Reports.* The Executive Council may distribute to the membership of the Association copies of the annual reports of the elected officers and the Executive Director and may distribute to the membership of the Association copies of the annual report of the Treasurer.

SECTION 5. *Reports from Committees.* The Executive Council shall make such reports from committees to the Senate as may be required by committee action for the execution of business under this Constitution and By-Laws.

Article VIII

Property of the Association

SECTION 1. *Property Owned.* All property owned by the Association shall be administered by the Executive Council. Any accumulation or disposal action of property, except upon dissolution of the Association, will be taken on the recommendation of the Executive Council and majority approval of the Senate.

SECTION 2. *Appropriations and Expenses.* All appropriation and expenses of the Association shall be subject to control as outlined in the Constitution and these By-Laws.

(a) *Appropriation of Association Funds.* All appropriations of Association funds shall be made by the Senate or the Executive Council. Any proposal for an appropriation originating in the Senate shall not be acted upon until a report is given as to its feasibility by the Executive Council.

(b) *Expenses.* The expenses incurred in the conduct of the affairs of the Association shall be paid by the Treasurer out of such appropriations as shall have been made for such purposes. The Executive Council may authorize the Treasurer to turn over funds of the Association from time to time to the Executive Director to meet designated expenses of the Association.

(c) *Division Expenses.* All expenses of each Division shall be paid from the funds possessed by the Division. Any liability incurred by any Division in excess of the funds of said Division shall not be the liability of the person or persons responsible for incurring or authorizing such liability.

(d) *Committee Expenses.* All expenses of Committees of the Association shall be paid from the funds appropriated therefore, and any liability incurred by any committee in excess of the funds appropriated therefore shall not be the liability of the Association but shall be the personal liability of the person or persons responsible for incurring or authorizing such liability.

Article IX

Committees

SECTION 1. *Classification of Committees.* The classes of committees of the Association shall be:

(a) Standing committees created by the Constitution for the investigation study and operation of matters relating to the accomplishment of the general purposes of the Association of a continuous and recurring character. The powers and duties of the standing committees shall be defined in the Constitution and these By-Laws.

(b) Special committees created by resolution of the Senate or Executive Council to investigate and study matters relating to specific purposes of the Association of an immediate or non-recurring character. The resolution creating such a special committee shall define its powers and duties.

SECTION 2. *Appointment of Committees.* Unless

otherwise provided in the Constitution or these By-Laws, appointment of members to serve on both standing and special committees shall be made by the president of the Association from among the individual members in good standing of the Association, and the chairman of each such committee shall be designated by the President. He shall consult with Divisional representatives on the Executive Council regarding membership of committees, as deemed appropriate.

SECTION 3. *Tenure and Number of Members of Committees*

(a) The members of all *standing* committees, unless otherwise designated, may serve for an unlimited time. Standing committees usually should be constituted to assure continuity of personnel. The chairmanship of standing committees should be rotated at least every third year. The members of all *special* committees should serve until the next succeeding meeting of the Senate after creation of the committee or until their successors are named or until they are discharged from their responsibilities. Vacancies in the membership of committees, both standing and special, shall be filled by appointment by the President.

(b) Unless otherwise provided by the Constitution or these By-Laws, each standing committee shall consist of at least three members, including its chairman, unless a different number shall be specified in the resolution creating such committee.

SECTION 4. *Committee Meetings.* Meetings of each committee, both standing and special, shall be held upon the call of its chairman.

SECTION 5. *Committee Reports.* Each standing committee and special committee shall submit to the Senate, at or prior to each regular meeting of the Senate, its written report which shall include a summary of its activities and its recommendations, if any, to the Senate, with a statement of the reasons for all recommendations contained in such report. Any report of any committee containing a recommendation of action which will result in expenditures of Association funds shall include in the report an estimate of the amount of such expenditures required. A copy of each committee report submitted to the Senate shall be delivered to each member of the Executive Council at least five days prior to submission to the Senate. Copies of any such reports may be distributed to the members of the Association if deemed advisable by the Executive Council or the Senate, either before or after the meeting of the Senate, to which such report is submitted.

SECTION 6. *Guidelines for Committees.* Each standing committee and special committee may have specific procedural guidelines set forth in these By-Laws.

(a) *Publications Committee.* Each Division of the Association shall designate two of its members to act as its representatives on the Publications Committee of the Association to serve with the President-elect. The Publications Committee shall study the needs for Association publications and shall make recommendations to the Senate and the Executive Council with reference to such needs, publications policies, and operating procedures. Further, there shall be a periodic assessment of each publication to determine whether it is fulfilling its function.

(1) *Editorial Board.* The primary purpose of the Editorial Board of the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* shall be to define publication policy for the *Journal.* The members of this board shall be appointed by the Executive Council for three-year staggered terms. The editor shall be appointed by the Executive Council for a three (3) year term and shall serve as Chairman of the Board as well as performing the usual duties as an Editor. The Editor may serve for a maximum of two terms, but this shall be considered in addition to the filling of an unexpired term.

(2) *Publications of Organizations Becoming Divisions.* The Association shall continue to publish, for at least one year from the time it becomes a member of the Association, the publication, if any, of each organization becoming a Division of the Association. During such one year period, the Executive Council, subject to approval of the Senate and after receipt and consideration of the recommendations of the Publications Committee, shall determine whether such publication shall, after the expiration of such one-year period, continue to be published, and in so doing shall consider the advisability of consolidating such publication with one or more other publications of the Association.

(3) *Distribution of Publications.* Each individual member in good standing of the Association shall be entitled to receive without charge (other than payment of dues as specified in these By-Laws) one publication of the Association and shall be entitled to receive additional publications of the Association at such rates as may be fixed by the Executive Council.

Article X

Branches of the Association

SECTION 1. *Branch Establishment.* A Branch shall petition through the Executive Director with subsequent approval of the Executive Council and a majority of the Senate for Branch status in the Association. The prospective Branch shall be com-

posed of twenty-five Association members as a minimum.

SECTION 2. A Constitution and By-Laws in harmony with the national Association's Constitution and By-Laws, and a list of officers and members of the proposed Branch and their occupational titles, shall accompany the application for a charter.

SECTION 3. Each Branch officer shall be a member of the Association.

SECTION 4. The Executive Director shall submit the application and proposed Constitution and By-Laws to the Executive Council for action. Tentative approval by the Executive Council will allow the Branch to plan its activities until the charter is ratified at the next meeting of the Senate.

SECTION 5. Amendments to any Branch Constitution shall be reported within thirty days to the Executive Director for approval by the Executive Council of the American Personnel and Guidance Association.

SECTION 6. A Branch shall collect its own fees and have entire management and control of funds to be expended for local purposes.

SECTION 7. Each Branch shall transmit to the Executive Director of the Association the names of its officers within thirty days of their election or appointment. Between March 1 and May 1 of each year, the secretary of the Branch shall send to the Executive Director an annual report of the activities and status of the Branch, including a complete list of the members.

SECTION 8. A Branch may have its charter revoked by the Senate on the recommendation of the Executive Council if it fails to maintain suitable activities and/or a reasonable number of members in good standing of the American Personnel and Guidance Association.

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AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION

(Consisting of the following divisions: American College Personnel Association, National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers, National Vocational Guidance Association, Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education, American School Counselor Association, and Division of Rehabilitation Counseling)

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WASHINGTON FLASHES

Transmitted by Max F. Baer

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY IN CHECK

Slight increase: Juvenile delinquency court cases increased by 2 per cent in 1959, according to Children's Bureau. However, last year's increase was smallest reported during past decade even though juvenile delinquency rate has risen steadily for 11 consecutive years. Contrary to trends in previous years, increase in delinquency cases did not exceed rise in child population, which went up by 5 per cent among children of juvenile court age (10–17).

FBI findings: The 1959 findings roughly parallel data recently issued by FBI, which showed 4 per cent increase in police arrests of juveniles in 1959 over 1958. Both juvenile court and police arrest data show that since 1948, juvenile arrests and court cases have more than doubled while population of our young people has increased by less than one-half.

Rural-urban area data: While general picture of delinquents before juvenile courts showed 2 per cent increase in 1959, there was 2 per cent decrease in number of juveniles handled in urban areas while courts serving semi-urban and rural areas experienced increases of 7 and 15 per cent, respectively.

Children in training schools: Children's Bureau reports that of children living in public training schools for delinquent children on June 30, 1958, one-fourth had been there previously. There are about 36,000 children in such institutions—about 150 per 100,000 child population. Juvenile courts commit to training schools roughly 1 in every 10 children who come before them. Courts use such methods as probation and counseling with majority of children they see.

EMPLOYMENT OF SCIENTISTS AND ENGINEERS

Trend is up: Employment of scientists and engineers in industry rose nearly 7 per cent between January, 1959, and January, 1960, according to National Science Foundation. This compares to rise of 5 per cent in previous year. More than 800,000 scientists and engineers were employed in January, 1960, by the U. S. business firms covered by a survey. This compares to 764,000 employed by a similar group of firms in January, 1959. Additional scientists and engineers were self-employed or

in small firms not covered by this survey. Figures are based on preliminary estimates from survey conducted for National Science Foundation by Bureau of Labor Statistics. More than 10,000 companies cooperated to furnish data.

Engineers and scientists: Proportionate increase from 1959 to 1960 was greatest for physical scientists, but growth in number of engineers greatly exceeded that of other occupational groups. About 80 per cent of scientists and engineers covered by survey were engineers. Of remaining 20 per cent, nearly half were chemists. Other physical scientists, including physicists, mathematicians, metallurgists, and geologists, made up additional 35 per cent of scientific employment.

Industrial firms: Industrial firms had net increase of about 40,000 engineers. This rise represented 6.6 per cent increase—much greater growth than occurred during 1958. Employment of scientists rose by more than 10,000 from 1959 to 1960—a 7 per cent increase. Greatest proportionate growth occurred in some small fields of specialization, but vast majority of scientists added to work force were chemists.

By industries: Two industries—electrical equipment, and aircraft and parts—each employed around 100,000 scientists and engineers in January, 1960. Other manufacturing industries employing more than 50,000 scientists and engineers included chemicals and allied products, machinery, and petroleum products (including extraction).

MISCELLANEOUS

Not what it used to be: For third consecutive year, number of students applying for admission to U. S. medical schools has decreased, says Association of American Medical Colleges. Number of applicants to 1959-1960 class was 6 per cent below 1956-1957, year before decline started. It is 40 per cent below peak year 1949-1950. In those days ratio of acceptances to number of applicants was more than 3 to 1; in 1959-1960 it was only 1.76 to 1.

More interest in science and math: Number of juniors in all fields of college study increased by 1.0 per cent from 1958 to 1959, according to U. S. Office of Education. But number majoring in science or math rose by 2.7 per cent. Number majoring in math rose 54.0 per cent over two-year period 1957 to 1959, with increase of 14.9 per cent for students majoring in physical sciences other than physics, chemistry, and geology. Students majoring in geology were only group showing marked decrease, amounting to 36.4 per cent over two-year period.

Guidance as Behavior Change

Each individual's life is an unsegmented stream of behavior. Responses performed at one point in the continuum become stimuli capable of evoking new responses at another point. All the events in an individual's reactional biography are intimately joined together to form a continuous, unbroken flow.

This stream of events has no beginning and no end. Today's responses may be evoked by events which happened centuries ago in distant lands. For example, the ways in which we respond to these words being spoken here are determined by historical events which shaped our language, our philosophies, and our culture. And the responses we make now will become a part of our behavior of tomorrow and may become a part of the infinite future as these responses have some impact on the reactional biographies of those who follow us.

Into this continuous, unsegmented stream of behavior, there may be introduced, from time to time, events which change its direction, accelerate its flow, or harness its energies to new and more demanding tasks. We may view guidance as such an event. Guidance involves interposing new stimuli in the flow of behavioral events which are capable of evoking new and more productive responses. Effective guidance can shape the course followed by the stream of behavior. Thus guidance involves behavior change.

In order to understand this process, it is necessary to have some clearly defined concept of what human psychological behavior is. If we wish to change behavior, we need to know something of its components and its nature. The purpose of this paper is to consider the nature of human behavior with a view to constructing a meaningful behavioral model. With such a model we propose to examine certain of our guidance activities in order to estimate their effectiveness in bringing about productive behavioral change.

A warning needs to be sounded at the outset of this discussion. As indicated above, psychological behavior is a continuous, unbroken stream of events. It is impossible, in objective reality, to segment and examine this flow. If we take a bucketful of water from a swift-running brook, we have only a bucket of water to analyze and evaluate. We have lost the magic bubbling of the brook; the sparkle and the sound are gone. What is left is no longer the gaily running brook we sought to understand.

So it is with human behavior. Observation of the continuous events of human life is impossible in objective reality, for the events which make up human behavior merge one into the other in such ways as to be one moment cause and the next moment effect. Analysis of these events as they occur in objective reality is inaccessible because they have no beginning and no end, while the very process of analyzing them, changes them.

Only through the medium of language is it possible to stop the flow of a reactional biography momentarily and to examine it, not in objective reality, but in symbolic reality. What we shall do then, is examine human psychological behavior as it can be made to exist in the symbolic reality of our minds and our language. We shall take a segment of behavior and examine it closely in words. But we shall try to keep in mind the bucketful of bubbling brook, remembering that it becomes the brook again only when we empty our bucket back into the stream.

Henry Weitz is Director, Bureau of Testing and Guidance, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina.

This article is adapted from a paper presented at the Guidance Frontiers Conference at The Ohio State University, March 1960.

HENRY WEITZ

Elements of Psychological Behavior

Psychological behavior,[1] to occur at all, must be composed of at least three elements: the *condition* element, the *stimulus* element, and the *response* element. These three elements are so intimately interrelated, as will be shown, as to be inseparable. Any model of psychological behavior, to be at all meaningful, must take into account all three elements and their dynamic structure.

The Condition Element. Every psychological behavior segment occurs within a framework of pre-existing conditions. Among the major components of these pre-existing conditions are the physical world about us and the psycho-social climate emanating from the on-going events in that world. The physical world is made up of the time-space continuum and is governed by such physical laws as gravity, entropy, relativity, and the like. The psycho-social climate is composed of the interactions of individuals and institutions and is characterized by such phenomena as love, aggression, language, custom, tradition, affiliation, and the like.

In psychological behavior, the physical world, that is the time-space continuum, interacts with the stimulus and response elements to produce such phenomena as speed, recency, frequency, sequence of events, and the like. The simple matter of the physical distance, for example, between an organism and an object or event will shape the nature of the psychological interaction which may develop between them. A chair placed inches away from the rump of a tired man may make it possible for him to reduce his fatigue, while the same chair behind a locked door in the next room may increase his feeling of fatigue.

[1] Many of the terms and concepts used in this section are adapted from the works of J. R. Kantor [*2, 3*].

The psycho-social climate of the condition element determines the appropriateness of a stimulus or a response and hence the probability of its occurrence. The supplications one offers up to the officials at a Saturday afternoon football game are inappropriate and hence unlikely to occur in church 18 hours later.

While the physical world and the psycho-social climate make up major aspects of the condition element in psychological behavior, they are not the only components of this element. The individual, himself, brings to each behavior segment certain basic conditions. Among these, perhaps the most important are the individual's total reactional biography up to the moment of the particular behavior segment and his momentary readiness to respond.

The reactional biography, the total experience of the organism, determines its behavior repertory and hence the availability of a response at any given moment, while the on-going behavior of the organism, its readiness to respond, determines not only the probability of occurrence of particular available response, but also the probability that a given stimulus object will acquire a particular stimulus function. The student who is preoccupied with the charms of the redhead two seats away is likely to perform a different response to the stimulus *What are the factors of* $a^2 + 2ab + b^2$? from the one performed by the student whose on-going behavior is innocently focused on the peculiar effects a buzzing fly has upon the eccentric mannerisms of the teacher.

The Stimulus Element. The stimulus element of a psychological behavior segment may be considered a specialized aspect of the condition element. Out of the buzzing, whirling confusion which fills the world of every organism, every living moment, some objects and events, from time to time, take on the specialized quality of being capable of participating in a specific psychological interaction. This quality may be labeled as the stimulus function. The stimulus function of an object or event is the specialized meaning it has for the organism as revealed in the organism's responses to it.

The stimulus function of an object or

event is derived from three sources: the characteristics of the object or event, the conditions under which it emerges from the field, and kinds of dynamic structure which is generated by the interaction of the object and the response element.

The kinds of stimulus functions which may emerge are limited by the characteristics and structure of the stimulus object or event. Such characteristics as size, color, movement, number, order, smoothness, physical state, constancy, change, and many more play a major role in the stimulus function as they impinge upon the receptor mechanism of the organism. The stimulus function of an omelet is something to be eaten while the stimulus function of a lecture on abnormal psychology is likely to be words to be noted. The student does not swallow the professor's words with the same relish he shows for the eggs.

But these characteristics alone do not determine the meaning a particular object or event will have for the organism. Contributing to this meaning are the conditions under which these characteristics reach the organism. The stimulus function of a Marilyn Monroe calendar is different for a 16-year-old male and his three-year-old brother. The same stimulus function is different, too, for the "same" male at different stages in his psycho-biological development.

Further contribution to the stimulus function is made by the way in which the stimulus object and the response interact. Thus a book which starts out having a stimulus function of *something to be read with enjoyment* emerges in the process of being read as having the stimulus function of *dull and revolting tripe to be avoided.*

Thus the characteristics of the stimulus object or event, the conditions under which these characteristics stimulate the organism, and the response-stimulus interaction all contribute, in varying degree for different organisms and for the same organism at different times, to the meaning and hence to the psychological behavior which will result from the emergence of a stimulus object or event from a condition field.

The Response Element. The response element of psychological behavior may be viewed as any activity performed by the organism. The activity performed, in general, brings the organism into a new relationship with specific stimulus functions emerging from the condition element and frequently with others in the field. The response element which establishes new relationships between the organism and the world around him is composed of at least four processes which may be identified as *awareness, manipulation, feeling,* and *communication.*

In performing *awareness responses,* the organism senses stimuli, focuses attention on them, perceives them, and identifies them, catalogues their characteristics, and abstracts their general qualities. In short, "knows" them. Out of these awareness responses, the stimulus functions emerge.

In performing *manipulation responses,* the organism orients itself with respect to the stimulus functions. This involves both psychological and motor orientation including such acts as approaching, withdrawing, submitting, mastering, moving, retaining, exploring, and so on. The organism learns, it reasons, it controls, it abstracts, it imagines, it dreams, and the like.

Feeling responses are a kind of feed-back mechanism which tells the organism how he is doing. It answers questions like: Was that last response a good one? Do my present actions frighten me? Will that future behavior be soothing? This feed-back mechanism is a kind of awareness, preceding, accompanying, and following each behavior segment, which informs the organism of the degree to which a bit of behavior tends to maintain and support the organism's concept of itself. This feed-back mechanism accounts for such entities as affect, set, interest, attitudes, and the like. The feeling process may also serve as a stimulus and thus become part of the stimulus function in subsequent behavior.

In performing *communication responses,* the organism conveys information about the psychological behavior segment to another organism or to itself. Communication may take place directly as when one individual pulls another out of the path of an onrush-

ing automobile or indirectly through the medium of language, gestures, non-language noises, and other symbolic media. In general, communication responses serve as part of the stimulus element in the subsequent behavior of the receiver whether the receiver happens to be another organism, or the communicator himself, or both, but it is not necessary for a receiver to be present for communication responses to take place. How often do we talk to ourselves, but pay no attention?

All of these responses interact not only with the usual internal and external stimulus functions, but also with each other. Thus it is possible, for example, to be aware of awareness, to think about feeling, to feel about awareness, and to communicate about communication.

The Behavior Product

The three elements of psychological behavior (condition, stimulus, and response) do not and can not operate independently of each other. Each contributes to every behavior segment a varying share. The whole of their contributions is greater, however, than the sum of the parts, for each element interacts with the other forming new dynamic structures.

For example, in the process of responding to the stimulus $5 + 7 = ?$ on an arithmetic examination the student writes the symbol *12* on his paper. The condition element has now changed: time has passed; the students near-by are working more diligently; the teacher has started to relax after seeing her charges begin the test; and so on. The stimulus element has also changed: it holds attention more easily; it is easier than expected; the test as a whole is shorter than it was a moment ago. Similarly, changes have occurred in the response element: awareness responses formerly directed toward the test as a whole are now focused upon details of items; manipulative responses (remembering, reasoning, learning) are made more easily as each answer is recorded; a sense of accomplishment spreads through the response element; communication responses are made more easily, because now the student knows where to put his answers. And then, at about the fifth problem, reactive inhibition begins to set in.

A change in any of those elements will have a profound influence upon all other elements. A student drops a pencil and the condition element changes, but so do the stimulus and response elements. One of the problems is difficult to read because of faulty inking of the mimeograph machine and the whole test becomes different as a stimulus object with a resulting change in the psychological climate and in the kinds of responses made by the student. The student inadvertently records *21* instead of *12* and recognizes his error. The other end of the pencil now emerges as an important aspect of the condition element and becomes a stimulus function. And so it goes.

In order to suggest the essential unity of the interrelationship between the elements of psychological behavior, we have chosen to label this dynamic structure the *Behavior Product*. This term is intended to encompass the resulting structure of the relationships between the elements of behavior at any point in a behavior segment or sequence. The term is intended to take into account the fact that each element is changing in the time-space continuum and that the relationships between the elements are also changing.

The bare outline of the behavior product discussed thus far is obviously not intended as a comprehensive theory of behavior, yet it is anticipated that, with considerable elaboration, it will be possible to find within this model the notions essential to reconciling some of the apparent diversity in current personality theory and necessary to grounding in objective reality some of our constructs which can claim existence only in the symbolic world of language.

It is possible to use this behavior product model as a guide to the examination of some of our present guidance practices. It is our purpose, in the remainder of this paper, to look into certain aspects of measurement and counseling, and to see how our views of these basic guidance functions may be clarified when they are analyzed within the framework of the behavior product model.

In guidance we are concerned with the redirection of the flow of behavior products into more productive and satisfying channels. To accomplish this it is necessary to be able to understand, predict, and control psychological behavior. Understanding, prediction, and control of psychological behavior depend upon the effectiveness of our observation of behavior products. Psychometric devices have served as one of our most effective means of observing these products. But how effective are they? To answer this question, we need to explore some of the intimate characteristics of psychometric devices.

Independence of Instrument and Product. In general, psychometric instruments, tests, rating scales, inventories, biographical information blanks, or what have you, are *first* a part of the condition element of a behavior product. The introduction of a psychometric device into a guidance setting immediately changes the conditions of that setting. This is perhaps most evident in the climate aspect of the condition element.

As the condition element develops and crystallizes, the test emerges from the general condition field and becomes a specialized stimulus element capable of interacting with specific responses. Psychometrists, in general, place the greatest emphasis upon this aspect of a test, namely as a group of stimuli capable of evoking responses which can then be quantified or evaluated.

But note that the test is also a part of the response element of the behavior product. The examinee by having learned something in a class, or by having brought his vocational problem to the clinic, or by having applied for a job produced the test as part of the behavior product as surely as if he had written the items himself.

Thus we see that the observing tool itself becomes an intimate part of each constituent of the behavior product. Now this may be a general characteristic of observation instruments, but it is unlikely that the telescope contributes much to the behavior of the moon or that the foot-rule or transit contributes much to the height of Pike's Peak. Yet most of the psychometric devices now in use contribute very actively to all three elements of the behavior product they are designed to observe.

The consequences of this are far-reaching. In general, we use tests as a source of information about behavior so that we may make predictions about that behavior when the test is not there. We give history tests, for example, not to find out how a student responds to the specific stimuli presented on the test, but to be able to predict the behavior product of the student when confronted with historical stimuli outside the school room (as when he is faced with a referendum ballot). Since the test, however, is so intimate a part of the school room behavior product and is completely absent from the non-school room product, it is not surprising that there is such a wide discrepancy between one product and the other.

This suggests one reason why we find limited validity coefficients for tests when the scores are compared with external *non-test* criteria and greater, but still limited, coefficients when validity is checked against another test as the external criterion. This further suggests at least one step which might be taken to remedy the situation. That is to make the behavior product, in so far as possible, independent of the psychometric device or at least introduce some correction mechanism to compensate for the fact that the test is part of the behavior product. Some feeble steps, of course, have been taken in this direction. The correction scores on the MMPI and the malingering scores being developed by Kuder are examples of this effort. But we need to look at psychometrics in an entirely new way if we are to achieve the necessary independence of observation instrument and behavior product.

To achieve independence of product and instrument it will be necessary to introduce the instrument into the situation in such a way as to reduce to a minimum the examinee's awareness of it or at least of its purpose. This means that if conventional tests are to be used, their purpose must be disguised. But conventional tests are not the only ways to observe behavior. Situa-

tional tests with hidden microphones and cameras for recording might well provide more meaningful and precise observations. Other instruments including psychogalvanometers, electro-encephalographs, and the like may contribute much to the observation of the response element.

The use of such instruments in making observations of behavior products would, of course, make the translation of the observations into quantitative terms more difficult if not impossible. Yet this, too, might turn out to be an advantage, for it is highly probable that our attempts to embed the mysteries of behavior products in a test score have made them even more mysterious while giving the false impression of removing a veil. Perhaps what is needed rather than a test score is a description of behavior by extension [*10*].

If it becomes possible to observe behavior products by means of psychometric devices which are independent of the product, there will still be a problem of sampling behavior products as a step toward predicting and controlling them. Let us consider some of the problems involved in psychometric sampling.

Some Sampling Aspects of the Observations. It must be fairly obvious that it is impractical if not impossible to observe all behavior products related to a given type of condition, stimulus, and response situation. Take, for example, the relatively simple situation of observing the arithmetic computational responses involved in adding all numbers taken two at a time between 0 and 99 thus: $0 + 0, 0 + 1, 0 + 2, \ldots 99 + 99$. If we consider this situation only from the point of view of the stimulus element, we note that there are some 10,000 possible stimuli. This number is doubled if we consider the form of the presentation of stimuli $(1 + 1 = \text{ or } \begin{array}{r}1\\ +1\\ \hline\end{array})$ and is made infinite when we consider the kinds and sizes of print, the color of ink, the kinds of paper, and so on which might be used in conveying these stimuli. When we consider this situation from the point of view of the condition element as well, we begin to develop some understanding of the magnitude of the number of behavior products which may be produced in such a situation. Simply considering the number of sequences in which 20,000 stimuli can be presented staggers the imagination, yet to this must be added the infinite variety of situations in which the student is called upon to add two one- or two-digit numbers. The classroom represents only an insignificant aspect of this situation. Furthermore, the variety of responses which the stimulus *57 + 38 =* can evoke is overwhelming, ranging from *95* through *I don't know* to almost anything.

This suggests that if we wish to observe the behavior products generated in this situation, we must take a sample. But how is this sample taken in the typical arithmetic computation test? In the first place the sample is determined not in terms of all possible behavior products, but rather in terms of the stimulus element almost exclusively. In the second place, even in the area of the stimulus element there is usually no evidence to lead one to believe that the sample selected is representative of the totality of response elements which can contribute to the behavior products in this kind of situation.

This state of affairs provides some insight into the relationship between test validity and test reliability. It, furthermore, gives us some clues as to why both are generally so low.

The reliability of a test, as we all know, provides us with a measure of the degree to which a test (behavior observation) will reproduce the same sort of results upon repeated administrations. Thus if a sample of stimuli are presented today and again tomorrow we would expect a group of examinees to fall in substantially the same order when ranked in terms of the "appropriateness" of their responses *provided the sample of stimuli evoked a sample of responses which is representative of the total behavior product applicable to the situation.* But why do we never get a reliability of 1.00? For several reasons. No psychometric device as presently constructed with the emphasis upon the stimulus element can ever be representative of the total behavior

product. The emphasis upon one aspect of the behavior product precludes its being representative. But also, the inadequacies of our sampling techniques make perfect reliability impossible to achieve. The major factor, however, which precludes the construction of a test with $r = 1.00$ is the fact that the condition element varies from test to test, even from moment to moment as in the case of split half methods of estimating reliability. And these variations in the condition element interacting as they do with all other elements are a necessary condition of psychological behavior. Any method of observing behavior which excludes or ignores this variability will produce observations of something, but not of psychological behavior products.

Now what of validity? Is not validity simply another name for what we have just called reliability? In the "face validity" technique, "experts" evaluate the test items with respect to the probability that they will evoke a representative sample of responses. Here we have an imagined sample of examinee responses produced by the experts and a real sample of responses produced by the examinees. If it were possible to translate the experts' imagined samples into a mathematical language comparable with that produced by a test score we would be able to determine the degree of agreement between these two samples.

When we talk about statistical validity, however, the similarity if not the identity of validity and reliability becomes more apparent. A set of test scores, in this technique, is evaluated in terms of the "scores" made by the same examinees on some external criterion measure. But what is this external criterion measure (whether it is another test, or a work sample, or teachers' grades, or what have you) but another sample of the same behavior products. Now this is precisely the same technique as is used in determining test-retest or alternate form reliability and it yields no better results.

All of this suggests that a crucial aspect in the observation of behavior products by means of psychometric methods is the procedure used for selecting samples to be measured. It explains to a marked degree why tests as now constructed and used provide so little information having significance in guidance. Yet it also suggests that a more intense attention to problems of sample representativeness with respect to all behavior product elements might produce tests having reliability or validity coefficients (whichever you now wish to call them) of 1.00.

As we have suggested above, the main concern of psychometrists has been with the response element of the behavior product. Let us examine this for a moment.

The Response Element in Observation. In constructing a psychometric device, the psychologist focuses his attention upon the stimulus element. His concern, here, is to design stimuli which are representative of the kinds of stimuli encountered in the behavior system he wishes to observe. When he uses the test as an instrument of observation, however, his attention is focused upon the response element. Yet the clarity of his focus needs to be questioned.

Let us return for a moment to the hypothetical test mentioned earlier (the addition of numbers 0 through 99 taken two at a time) which purports to measure arithmetic computation responses. In this test, the stimulus $57 + 29 = ?$ must stimulate some receptor. The examinee must become aware of the stimulation and attend. This attention must be translated into a perception which gives meaning (stimulus function) to the squiggles on the page. This meaning must be classified with respect to the examinee's reactional biography and available behavior repertory.

Now a breakdown in any one of these steps in the awareness process will result in some response other than *86* being written after the equals sign. The examiner is concerned with arithmetic computation behavior, but this behavior may never be performed simply because of the breakdown in the awareness aspect of the response element.

The examinee may, of course, perform all the appropriate awareness responses and still come up with the wrong manipulative responses. He may arrive at the answer *76*

because he forgot to "carry one." Or he may perform the awareness and manipulation responses correctly, but he may record his answer as *68* instead of *86*, or he might write the correct answer in such a way as to cause the examiner to read it as *88*. Here we have a deficiency in communication responses.

If the examinee's father happens to be a bookkeeper whose preoccupation with arithmetic precision causes him to be a threat to the examinee each time he does his homework, then we may expect that the examinee's feeling responses which accompany each awareness, manipulation, and communication response will be so negative and so violent as to obscure any arithmetic computational skill he may have.

It may be argued that all these responses make up computational behavior. If the correct answer is recorded, computational skill is present; if the wrong answer appears on the test, it is not. When we consider the purpose of behavior observation, however, this argument loses weight. Aside from satisfying some idle or even busy curiosity, we observe behavior by means of measurement in order to understand, predict, and control it. If this, then, is our purpose, we need to look beyond the immediate observation.

In the case of an examinee who records an "incorrect" response to the test item for any one of the reasons suggested above, the following are some of the alternative courses of action open. If we conclude that he is lacking in computational skill, he may be sent to a course in remedial arithmetic. He may need only to be taught how to "carry one," but the total remedial instruction may be so degrading to him as to suppress any arithmetic skill he already has. It may be that he requires remedial reading instruction to improve his awareness responses, or remedial writing instruction to improve his communication responses, or psychotherapy to improve his relationships with his father. Or perhaps this behavior sample suggests that the father requires psychotherapy, or that the examiner requires remedial reading or cryptographic instruction.

This serves to suggest then that even when attention is focused upon the response element, most present instruments do not provide sufficiently precise observations to permit subsequent meaningful action. There has been in recent years a commendable effort to design instruments which will give more precise observations of responses. Tests like the Yale Educational Aptitude Tests, the Differential Aptitude Tests, and the like are steps in the right direction. Factor analysis approaches to instrument design may be promising *if the elements fed into the technique are sufficiently precise.*

Some studies [*1, 7, 8*] seem to show that the manipulative response, reasoning, is not uniform for all types of stimuli. These studies seem to suggest that difference in reasoning responses from one type of stimulus to another (verbal and quantitative for example) are related to patterns of feeling responses. Clinical observations made by the present writer suggest that different kinds of awareness responses as measured by the Minnesota Clerical Test are related to different kinds of reasoning responses and feeling responses.

Thus we see that although the psychometric instrument provides observations of the response element, these observations are not precise enough to give a detailed view of the specific element, nor global enough to give a view of the total behavior product. The question might well be raised as to whether psychometric devices do not obscure at least as much as they reveal.

With respect to the response element in particular, but also with respect to all elements in the behavior product, it is necessary to observe each aspect independently and in terms of its interaction with other aspects so that some differentiation as to dominant source of behavior can be achieved. We need to be able to say that such and such a behavior product emerges because reasoning, or imagining, or feeling, or awareness, or communication responses dominated or because time, or space, or climate conditions dominated or because some aspects of the stimulus dominated the behavior.

One aspect of behavior which must be observed with great precision, if we are to see the full picture, is its variability. Ex-

perience tells us that from behavior product to behavior product even when many of the characteristics remain constant, variation will take place. It is this variation, according to Lepley [6], which distinguishes living organisms from inanimate objects. We need, therefore, to inquire into the problem of the laws (if any) which variability in behavior follows and to observe these with some precision.

This discussion of psychological measurement as it might be used to facilitate guidance suggests that the application of the behavior product model yields indications of why psychometric devices are not more effective than they are and provides some clues as to steps which might be taken to improve them. Let us now turn to an analysis of counseling in much the same way and see what ideas we may draw from the behavior product model which may point to ways of improving counseling.

Counseling

The counseling situation is, itself, a series of behavior products. In the counseling situation we have a client motivated, usually by some level of anxiety, to consider a problem with the counselor. The problem may appear to be a simple one such as determining whether it would be better to take a foreign language or a mathematics course in the senior year of high school as a means of facilitating admission to college, or it may appear to be a more complex problem such as attempting to establish more effective relations with the opposite sex while trying to cope with the psychosocial tensions evoked by an alcoholic father.

All problems brought to the counselor's office appear to have certain common characteristics. *First,* they emerge as the result of some obstruction to the ongoing behavior of the client. The client's available repertory of responses is not adequate to clear away the obstruction or circumvent it.

Secondly, this frustrating state of affairs leads to anxiety. Now, of course, the anxiety evoked by the choice between language and mathematics is at a relatively low level while that evoked by the alcoholic father who frustrates an adequate heterosexual social life is more intense. Yet even the student who simply drops in to the counselor's office for a "social chat" may be driven by an underlying tension system related to his unfulfilled need for affiliation or self-actualization.

The *third* characteristic which most counseling problems have in common is that the client has made a number of attempts to solve his problem and hence reduce his anxieties with the response repertory at his disposal before bringing the problem to the counselor. These have not yielded the desired results. Therefore, the client tries one more approach and brings his problem to a person who by reason of his position and status can be expected to provide some relief from his tensions.

A *fourth* common characteristic of counseling problems is the fact that the behavior products which are being produced at any given moment involve responses to stimuli which appeared in the past and are appearing in the present but also and, perhaps more important, *the anxiety responses being evoked in present behavior products are reactions to future stimuli.* This notion that stimuli in the future can evoke responses now is probably the most thoroughly ignored and yet the most important concept necessary to the counseling process.

The choice response which a student must make between language and mathematics is a response to the stimulus function *college-admission-requirements* of the future. The anxiety responses evoked in psychosocial relationships with the opposite sex are, in part, responses to the future behavior of an alcoholic father when a potential boy friend brings the client home after a date.

These present responses to future stimuli are mediated through the mechanism of *anticipation.* We can anticipate events and respond to these events because our entire previous reactional biography (including those experiences which we have had only secondhand through reading and hearing about the experiences of others) provides us with a reservoir of behavior products from which we can abstract an "essence."

This essence we project into the future and respond to it.

These then are the common characteristics of counseling problems before they are brought to the counselor: (1) some obstruction of ongoing behavior; (2) anxiety evoked by the obstruction; (3) the expectation of anxiety reduction by the intervention of the counselor; and (4) a response system geared not only to past and present stimuli but also to anticipated future stimuli. These are some of the crucial aspects of the condition element in the behavior product as the client sits across the desk from the counselor.

There are, of course, many others. The time of day, the nature of the physical surroundings, the urgency with which social pressures demand a solution to the problem, and the like are all aspects of the condition element which will influence the nature and course of the counseling process as it develops. Most important is the counselor's personality and the kind of psychosocial climate it provides.

Out of these almost undifferentiated stimulus objects and events making up the condition element, there emerges one stimulus capable of evoking a response. Usually this is the counselor's voice saying, "Would you like to tell me what brought you in here today?" Whereupon the client enters into a series of verbal responses involving awareness, manipulation (of symbols), communication, and feeling.

Together, the counselor and the client manufacture a symbolic map of the client's psychological terrain and examine symbolically the possible routes which might be profitable to explore as ways of going over or around the obstacle which stands in the way of the client's ongoing behavior. Here it is important to note that the only thing that happens in a counseling session is the manipulation of symbolic reality by means of language involving, for the most part, words, but also gestures and expressions [5].

The extent to which this symbolic reality matches the objective reality of the client will determine the effectiveness of the counseling process. As the symbolic map produced in counseling begins to approach the objective reality of the client's psychological terrain and as the mapped routes to his goals appear to circumvent the obstruction to his ongoing behavior, the client's feeling responses become less anxious, his haze of tensions begins to fade, and he sees the road to his goals more clearly.

This anxiety reduction serves as reinforcement to learning the routes on the symbolic map. There still remains, however, the problem of translating what goes on in a symbolic way in the counseling session to the client's objective reality outside the counselor's office. We have, in the work of Wolfgang Kohler [4] on isomorphism, a suggestion of how this may occur. According to his studies, visual stimuli are capable of evoking specific identifiable electrical brain wave patterns. From these data, it is possible to guess that all sorts of experiences, including symbolic problem solving which takes place in counseling may set up their own unique brain wave patterns. Similarly, experiences outside the symbolic situation can be expected to produce wave patterns. Now if the symbolic pattern and the pattern evoked by objective reality turn out to have a marked similarity, this may be enough to continue in objective reality the activity undertaken in symbolic reality. This, of course, is pushing the notion of isomorphism pretty far, but it might serve as a useful prod to further clinical research.

Another aspect of the behavior products produced in the counseling situation which has some important implications here is the client's expectations from the counselor. Here, Harry Stack Sullivan's [9] notion of the therapist as a *participant observer* appears to suggest a fruitful line of investigation. Sullivan's views on this go somewhat as follows: "He (the therapist or counselor) should never forget that he is earning his living as an expert in interpersonal relations, and that the patient has a right to expect he is going to learn something which will benefit him." This point of view and the many important things which Williamson [11] and his adherents have had to say about the counselor's responsibility seem to make exciting good sense when viewed in the framework of the behavior product.

Conclusion

It has been the purpose of this presentation briefly to sketch a formulation describing human psychological behavior which we have called the behavior product and to examine two guidance functions, measurement and counseling, as they relate to this behavior model. It is our firm belief that guidance can move forward only as the processes and services are tested against some unified theory of behavior. Unless this is done, we are likely to have a technology made up of cookbook exercises having little relation to each other. The development, refinement, and acceptance of a unified, consistent, and broad theory of behavior will permit the generation of hypotheses useful in testing our many and varied practices and will permit guidance to grow from a technology to a profession. This is not a plea for the acceptance of the behavior product model. It is a plea, however, for the application of all the effort, thought, and creative imagination at our disposal to the problem of developing and testing some acceptable model.

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COMMENTS

THE REFRESHING and stimulating qualities of Dr. Weitz's paper—and these attributes are strong and positive ones—have their worrisome side even as they beneficially challenge our conceptions of guidance and personnel services. In emphasizing guidance as a technique of facilitating behavioral change in clients, this insightful discussion falls squarely within the tradition of applied learning theory. "Learning" is simply the term we apply to any modification of behavior as a function of experience. Since guidance is a source of behavior-modifying experiences, it entails some manipulation of the learning process. If this information is an obvious one, it is all the more striking that Dr. Weitz levies so little on either contemporary work in the psychology of learning or those direct applications of it to applied problems [*1, 2, 4*].

A notion worth at least a little contemplation here is that guidance may be aided in its advance toward greater effectiveness in its contributions to youngsters and toward more genuine professional status if it articulates itself more closely with the basic behavioral sciences on which it rests and with the other professions with which it shares common concerns. Interestingly, the extent to which Dr. Weitz achieves this articulation is very different when he discusses measurement and when he discusses counseling.

In the latter case, he adopts a position very similar to that taken by stimulus-response learning theorists: Troubled people (clients) are those whose flow of behavior has encountered obstacles (frustration); this experience of thwarting has given rise to anxiety, which motivates response systems, including verbal and symbolic ones, that are more oriented toward the relieving of immediate personal tensions than the solving of

actual and more fundamental problems. The counselor works usefully in such a situation by participating with the counselee to "manufacture a symbolic map of the client's psychological terrain and (to) examine symbolically the possible routes which (it) might be profitable to explore as ways of going over or around the obstacle (s) . . ." Good enough. But there is no consideration of either the applicability of Tolman's learning theory [5], out of which the concept of the psychological map is drawn, to the counseling process; nor is there any attention given to the large amount of provocative work, recently summarized by Krasner [3], on verbal learning, which presumably would have at least some *prima facie* relationship to a formulation of counseling that quite properly underscores symbolic processes—conversation and shared thought—as the heart of guidance-oriented interactions. Conceivably, of course, these considerations have been fully dealt with in private and excluded from Dr. Weitz's article for some good reason, but there are issues here which perhaps could be profitably made public and wrestled with by large numbers of us in guidance work for the benefit of our own educations.

Certainly, the situation is very different when Dr. Weitz takes up psychometric matters. His penetrating analysis of tests assumes a wide familiarity with technical concepts, and his treatment of sampling and validity demonstrates precisely the kind of critical articulation with psychometric theory that is being more generally pled for here. Furthermore, he makes a real contribution to our constructive thinking about tests by turning on them the light of personality and general behavior theory.

By emphasizing the psychometric device as a sample of behavior *subject to precisely the same influences as all other behavior,* this discussion evocatively focuses our attention on long neglected concerns: the problem of the congruence of items to the actual situations they are intended to represent (a sampling issue very different from that involving norm groups and samples of persons); the susceptibility of a test to distinctive (and disruptive) condition and response elements in the "manufacture" of a behavioral product; and the scope of the observational opportunities a test provides in relation to the non-test criterion in which we are interested. Most of all, it poses for us the crucial question of the extent to which our mensurational devices themselves determine the observations (of behavior products) that we can make with them, often in a fashion that leads *away* from the criterion inferences that it is our business, in the interest of the client, to formulate in humanly useful terms. This three-way fusing of psychometric theory, behavior theory, and the humane objectives of the guidance profession has more than a little promise in it, not the least of which is a reduction in our peculiarly worshipful stance toward tests and a renewed and harder examination of the whole observational process as a tool of the guidance worker sophisticated in the psychology of personality.

Finally, there is a point that calls for comment because Dr. Weitz ignores it in the present context. If guidance is a way of bringing about changed behavior in its clients, at what kinds of changes should it be aimed? Clearly, there is a welter of potential modifications that may be effected in any given client. The determination of which potential changes are most appropriate entails two considerations. First, in making any such determination, we are exercising our judgment in the realm of values, a domain in which many of us are likely to feel a bit uncomfortable. Second, in making such judgments and in implementing them under the conditions of our professional responsibility, we are willy-nilly attempting to control the behavior of another person. Thus, to use Dr. Weitz's phrase, when we "redirect the flow of behavior products into more productive and satisfying channels," we commit ourselves to making decisions about what channels are more "productive and satisfying." Nor does it do to say that this form of choice is the client's. Were he able to exercise it effectively, he wouldn't be a client! The process of working toward new or more sharply clarified values as a basis for choice may be a shared one, but its shared character hardly

frees the professional member of the partnership from fundamental and crucial responsibility if he is to function as a genuinely helpful "participant observer" in the life of his counselee.

The focus on guidance work as an instrument for facilitating behavioral change is a useful and much needed one, and we owe Dr. Weitz a debt of gratitude for making it available to us. To take full advantage of this angle of regard, we need, among other things, a closer kind of sophisticated relationship with relevant ideas and findings in the behavioral sciences and a more explicit and informed sharing of points of view on the question of values as it affects, as it must, our professional enterprise.—EDWARD JOSEPH SHOBEN, JR., *Professor, Department of Psychological Foundations and Services, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.*

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NEW BOOK ANALYZES COLLEGE EMPLOYMENT RECRUITING

Effective College Recruiting, a new book to be published in April by the University of Michigan Bureau of Industrial Relations, discusses what job recruiters think of students and how the students view the recruiters. The book will present in detail the results of an analysis of 135 brochures, findings based on interviews with 109 recruiters from 79 different companies, and results of over 1,000 interviews and pencil-and-paper questionnaires given students immediately after job interviews in the University of Michigan School of Business Administration.

Referral Information Preferences of Vocational Rehabilitation Counselors and ES Placement Personnel

WILLIAM E. HERBER and RENE V. DAWIS

The Vocational Rehabilitation Amendments of 1954 (Public Law 565) provide for the expansion and improvement of vocational rehabilitation services for the physically and mentally handicapped. Section 5 of the Amendments recommends that the state agencies for vocational rehabilitation make maximum use of the employment counseling, job placement, and other programs of the public employment agencies [3].

It has been generally recognized (although not usually practiced) that improved methods of communicating referral information are needed in the development of more effective working relationships between the public employment agencies and the state vocational rehabilitation agencies. The State Employment Service and the State Division of Vocational Rehabilitation of Florida, for example, have pointed out the necessity for a standard method of transmitting information about the rehabilitant [2]. Gleason [1] has remarked on the need for a better method of translating medical information into usable terms for placement purposes. The present paper supports the feasibility of improving the referral process.

A study on the communication of referral information between vocational rehabilitation counselors and Employment Service (ES) placement personnel was undertaken at the Industrial Relations Center of the University of Minnesota. This study attempted to answer two questions about referral information relative to physically handicapped counselees:

1. What kinds of information do vocational rehabilitation counselors and ES placement personnel feel should be included in the referral of a handicapped person for successful placement?

2. In what form do vocational rehabilitation counselors and ES placement personnel think referral information should be expressed?

Method

A questionnaire was developed to collect three kinds of data:

1. *Personal-history data* on the respondents completing the questionnaire. This section included sex, job title, length of employment, years of education, college degrees, field of specialization while in college, and months in counseling or placement work with the handicapped. In addition, the vocational rehabilitation counselors were asked how many completed cases or closures they had during the fiscal year (1956–1957) and how many counselees they had referred to the ES during this time. The ES placement personnel were also asked how many hours per week they spent in placing the handicapped.

William E. Herber was a Research Assistant at the University of Minnesota's Industrial Relations Center working under the direction of Dr. Dawis when this research was conducted. Rene V. Dawis is Research Director of the Minnesota Studies of Vocational Rehabilitation.

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2. *Referral-content data* relative to preferences for items from five areas of referral information: education, information concerning the handicap, social history, test results, and work history. These five areas of referral content were chosen because of their coverage of information most likely to appear in a referral of a handicapped person. A check list of five items was written for each of the five areas. For example, the following five items were selected for the area on information concerning the handicap:

a. Expected medical outcome
b. Working conditions to be avoided
c. Additional medical treatment needed
d. Medical information
e. Physical capacities

These instructions were given for this section:

The following is a list of items likely to be included in the referral of a handicapped individual for placement. To help us determine what information vocational rehabilitation counselors send placement personnel, check in the "often" column if you feel that item should be included in two-thirds (2/3) or more of *all referrals of handicapped individuals* you make (receive); check in the "seldom" column if you feel that the item should be included in only a third (1/3) or less of *all referrals;* check in the "sometimes" column if you think that the item falls between "often" and "seldom."

3. *Referral-form preferences* for the five areas of referral information. The items were written in three different ways: as technical statements (specific, but not interpreted); as interpreted statements (specific and interpreted); and as general statements. Following is an example of three forms of expression for one item:

a. *technical statement*: Wishes to work as a salesman, D.O.T. 1–55.10 (specific but not interpreted).
b. *interpreted statement*: Wishes to work selling notions and other inexpensive merchandise on a house-to-house basis (specific and interpreted).
c. *general statement*: Wishes to work as a salesman.

These were the instructions for the referral-form section:

Listed below are 30 items of information which may be included in a referral of a handicapped individual to the State Employment Service for placement. Each item is expressed in three different ways. *Each* of the three statements is *correct.* Choose the one which you feel would be *most useful* in the successful placement of the handicapped.

As a pretest, the questionnaire was administered to a group of 11 Veterans Administration Hospital Vocational Counselors and re-administered two weeks later to the same group. The proportion of responses which were identical for both test and retest was 73 per cent for the referral content section, 82 per cent for the referral form section, and 78 per cent for the two sections combined. These results indicated that the questionnaire could be used without major revisions. The content and instructions of the questionnaire were discussed with this pretest group and with ES research personnel. Several changes were made to clarify the instructions and the wording of some items. The area of vocational plan was also added. (It had been assumed previously that the vocational plan of the referred individual would always be considered important and, therefore, need not be included in the questionnaire. Both VA counselors and ES research personnel felt strongly this assumption could not be made and that vocational plan should be included.)

The questionnaire was sent to all ES personnel involved in the placement of handicapped job applicants in the State of Minnesota and to State Division of Vocational Rehabilitation counselors and counselors in other public and private agencies concerned with the vocational rehabilitation of the handicapped. This latter group included counselors from such agencies as the State Services for the Blind, the Veterans Administration, and the Jewish Vocational Office. Respondents were not asked to sign their names. After two follow-up letters, completed questionnaires were received from 72 vocational rehabilitation counselors and 122 ES placement personnel (a response of 95 per cent for each group).

Results

1. *Characteristics of the samples.* There

were no significant differences between vocational rehabilitation counselors and placement personnel in terms of age, sex, and number of years of schooling completed. Significantly more counselors held B.A. and M.A. degrees and had majored in psychology while in college. The counselors had been employed for a median of 34 months working with handicapped. The placement personnel had worked a median of 120 months, with a median of three hours each week spent in the placement of the handicapped.

II. *Referral content.* Vocational rehabilitation counselors and ES placement personnel generally agreed on the areas of information that should be included most frequently in a referral form. These areas in order of preference were: vocational plan, information concerning the handicap, work history, education, test results, and social history. The largest difference between groups was on the area of handicap information, with 80 per cent of the placement personnel, compared with 74 per cent of the counselors, feeling it should be included "often" in a referral. TABLE 1 shows the high agreement found on each area of referral information.

There was also a high degree of agreement between the two groups in terms of the rank order of preference for individual items. The Spearman *rho* correlation coefficient between the rankings of the two groups was 0.96 (see TABLE 2). Three-fourths of both groups chose 10 items to include "often" in all referrals made. These items were: (a) physical capacities; (b) working conditions to be avoided; (c) work history for past five years; (d) kind of educational specialization; (e) total number of years of education; (f) vocational plan; (g) aptitude test results; (h) experience with tools and equipment; (i) degrees or certificates obtained; and (j) expected medical outcome.

There were statistically significant differences in preferences between the two groups for only six items. These were: (a) work history for past five years; (b) description of duties for last job held; (c) additional medical treatment needed; (d) type and amount of current welfare aid; (e) police record; and (f) personality test re-

TABLE 1

Referral Information Preferences of Rehabilitation Counselors (N = 72) and Placement Personnel (N = 122), by Area

Area of Information	*Group*[a]	*Often*[b]	*Sometimes*	*Seldom*[c]	*Chi-Square*
		Per cent[d]			
Education	C	64	23	13	1.75
	P	65	25	11	
Work history	C	65	23	11	3.99
	P	71	20	9	
Handicap information	C	74	17	8	10.00*
	P	80	16	4	
Social history	C	20	42	38	3.74
	P	26	37	37	
Test results	C	62	26	12	5.73
	P	63	30	7	
Vocational plan	C	86	14	0	0.03
	P	85	15	0	

[a] C = Counselors; P = Placement Personnel.
[b] Often = feels item should be included in two-thirds or more of all referrals.
[c] Seldom = feels item should be included in one-third or less of all referrals.
[d] Rounded to nearest whole number; totals do not always equal 100 per cent.
* Significant at the 0.01 level.

sults. With the exception of "type and amount of current welfare aid," significantly more placement personnel than counselors preferred the inclusion of these items "often."

III. *Referral form.* TABLE 3 shows the substantial agreement between the two groups on the form to be used for expressing referral information. In general, both groups had a marked preference for the interpreted type of statement in all areas of referral information. This preference was highest for the handicap information area, with 89 per cent of each group preferring interpreted statements in this area. Preference for interpreted statements was the lowest for the social history area. Only 60 per cent of the counselors and 68 per cent of the placement personnel preferred interpreted statements in this area.

Among those who did not prefer the interpreted form of statements, significantly more placement personnel than counselors preferred general statements. This tendency was apparent in the four areas in which there were statistically significant differences between groups: social history, handicap information, test results, and vocational plan. For example, on handicap information only 11 per cent of each group preferred a form of statement other than interpreted, but 9 per cent of the placement personnel, compared with only 4 per cent of the counselors, preferred general statements.

IV. *Other comparisons.* "High" and "low" sub-groups were isolated in both the counselor and placement personnel groups in terms of education, experience, and college major. Differences between sub-groups

TABLE 2

Referral Information Preferences of Rehabilitation Counselors and Placement Personnel, by Item

	Rank Order of Preference		
Item of Information	*Counselors* ($N = 72$)	*Placement Personnel* ($N = 122$)	*Total Group* ($N = 194$)
Physical capacities	1	1	1
Working conditions to be avoided	2	3	2
Work history for past five years	6	2	3
Kind of educational specialization	4	4	4
Total number of years of education	3	5	5
Vocational plan	5	6	6
Aptitude-test results	7	7	7
Experience with tools and equipment	9	8	8
Degrees or certificates obtained	8	9	9
Expected medical outcome	10	10	10
Interest-test results	11	12	11
Intelligence-test results	12	14	12
Medical information	14	13	13
Description of duties of last job held	16	11	14
Trade-test results	13	15.5	15
Additional medical treatment needed	18	15.5	16
Employer evaluation of quality and quantity of work	15	17	17
Unemployment history	17	18	18
Scholastic record in school	19	20	19
Marital and family information	20	21	20
Police record	24	19	21
Drinking history	21	22	22
Personality-test results	22	23	22
Reason for leaving school	23	24	24
Type and amount of current welfare aid	25	26	25
History with welfare agencies	26	25	26

were so few and so widely scattered that interpretation of the results was difficult. For practical purposes, differences in education and experience appeared to have had little influence on the responses to this questionnaire.

Summary and Conclusions

This study investigated the preferences of vocational rehabilitation counselors and ES placement personnel concerning the content and the form of referral information in an inter-agency referral of a physically handicapped individual. The results of this study indicate:

1. There was a high degree of agreement among counselors and placement personnel concerning the types of information which should be included in the referral of a handicapped individual for placement. Information about vocational plan, handicap, education, work experience, and test results were generally considered important by the groups. Information on social history was considered to be less important.

2. Both counselors and placement personnel preferred that referral information be expressed as interpreted statements rather than technical or general statements. It would be interesting and possibly of real importance to have comparable data from counselors and placement personnel in other states. There are reasons for believing that the agreements would prevail but

TABLE 3

Preferences of Rehabilitation Counselors and Placement Personnel for Form of Expressing Referral Information, by Area

Area of Information	Group: Rehabilitation Counselors ($N = 72$)	Group: Placement Personnel ($N = 122$)	Chi-Square
	Per cent*		
Education:			4.96
a. technical	20	16	
b. interpreted	72	73	
c. general	8	11	
Work history:			2.89
a. technical	21	17	
b. interpreted	73	76	
c. general	7	8	
Handicap information:			23.69†
a. technical	7	2	
b. interpreted	89	89	
c. general	4	9	
Social history:			20.68†
a. technical	26	14	
b. interpreted	60	68	
c. general	14	18	
Test results:			6.31*
a. technical	9	6	
b. interpreted	69	66	
c. general	22	28	
Vocational plan:			7.68*
a. technical	12	7	
b. interpreted	82	85	
c. general	6	8	

* Rounded to nearest whole number; totals do not always equal 100 per cent.
* Significant at the 0.05 level.
† Significant at the 0.01 level.

the percentages might be drastically different, especially in states where counseling and placement work have not developed to a high degree of professionalization.

3. It is probable that many referral problems result not from different values being attached to certain kinds of information but from the failure to communicate the information which both groups consider important to successful placement of the physically handicapped. A standardized form for communicating referral information should aid in making the referral process more effective.

4. A further implication of the present study is that formal and inservice training in both counseling and placement interviewing should include information about the agreement between counselors and placement personnel on the kinds of referral information considered important. Training should also be included on ways of expressing referral data in the preferred interpreted form.

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POLICY OF U. S. NATIONAL STUDENT ASSOCIATION AVAILABLE

Codification of Policy, 1960–61, a compilation of the original policies of the United States National Student Association and those recently created through legislation passed at the 13th National Student Congress, is available from the National Office, 3457 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia 4, Pennsylvania.

A Comparative Study of the Mailed Questionnaire and the Interview in Follow-up Studies

ROBERT M. JACKSON and J. W. M. ROTHNEY

SOUND EVALUATION of guidance requires some form of follow-up study to appraise the behavior, performances, and opinions of those who have been counseled. The investigator who attempts a follow-up study will have to get information directly from his subjects, and when he sets out to do so he is faced with a choice of using either questionnaires or interviews. The study described below was designed to determine the differential value of these two follow-up procedures in eliciting responses from high school graduates.

The merits, weaknesses, and biases of both the mailed questionnaire and the interview have been discussed frequently but there has been little research designed to assess the comparative contributions of the two procedures for follow-up purposes. Hyman [4], Hancock [3], and Franzen and Lazarsfeld [1] have suggested that differences in results can be expected in terms of such variables as depth of response, completeness of return, nature and quality of answers, and the expense involved. Parker, Wright, and Clark [5] pointed directly at this problem when they asked, "Can we afford the time and expense to train interviewers when questionnaires or similar techniques can only be slightly less reliable?" They went on to say that experiments may be designed to make a crucial test of each and that such experimentation may save much valuable time and effort as well as relieving some of the anxious feelings encountered by those who use techniques generally considered less than reliable.

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Method

The data used in this study were obtained in the Wisconsin Counseling Study [6]. It was begun in 1948 in four selected Wisconsin high schools. The 890 students of the original sample had been divided randomly into experimental and control groups while they were in the 10th grade. The experimental group received intensive counseling from members of the University of Wisconsin staff during their three years in high school while the control group received only those guidance services normally offered in their respective schools.

All of the 685 subjects who remained to graduate responded to a four-page mailed questionnaire five years after high school graduation. The form of the questionnaire was described by Rothney [6]. In order to obtain a representative sample of 50 cases from this group for follow-up interviews, every 14th case was drawn from alphabetical lists of the control and experimental subjects. Within three months after the mailed questionnaire had been returned, these 50 individuals were sent a personal letter asking them if they would consent to be interviewed in their homes by the major author.

The investigator went to the homes of the 50 subjects who cooperated and tape recorded the follow-up interviews. The questions used in the interview were memorized by the interviewer and he used the same wording and ordering of the questions as they had appeared on the mailed form of the questionnaire. The subjects were given time and encouragement to extend their answers to the questions during the interview.

Each interview tape was transcribed to facilitate the handling of the data and the

following procedures were used in their analysis.

1. In order to make comparisons of responses to the mailed questionnaire and the interview in terms of completeness of response, all questions which were not answered and all irrelevant responses to both the mailed questionnaire and interview procedures were tabulated.

2. Numerical values to the responses for 31 of the factual and evaluative items within the questionnaire schedule were devised and applied so that comparisons of responses for the two methods were possible.

3. Two experienced counselors and the author read and evaluated the responses on the questionnaires and interview reports independently. Each reader noted the answers that he thought had given evidence of problems or adjustments of the individual. The results of these readings were tabulated and compared in terms of frequency, uniqueness, and type of problems and adjustments elicited by each method.

4. The cost of materials, postage, and travel were computed for the questionnaire and interview methods. An estimate was also made of the time that was required to get responses by each method.

Results

Completeness of response as elicited by the two procedures is particularly important to the researcher because of the biases which may be introduced by incomplete returns [6]. The results reported in TABLE 1 suggest that the hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the completeness of response as elicited by each method should be rejected. Differences in proportions of response to the 39 items used on both the questionnaire and interview were significant. All of them favored the interview, and 20 were significant at the five per cent level or better. The per cent of completion dropped as low as 42 per cent for one item on the mailed questionnaire while a per cent of 86 was the lowest recorded to any interview question. Out of a potential of 1,746 items (obtained by summing all the items to which the 50 subjects could respond) the mailed questionnaire produced 83.3 per cent response and the interview produced a total of 98.1 per cent completion. The difference between the two methods (14.8 per cent) is significant at the one per cent level [2].

TABLE 1

Significance of the Differences in Proportions of Response to the Same Items Used on the Mailed Questionnaire and the Interview

Proportion of Responses to Items	*Level of Significance* 1%	5%	n.s.	Total
Favoring mailed questionnaire	0	0	0	0
Favoring interview	11	9	19	39

Clinical evaluation of the responses to the mailed questionnaire was done by two readers working independently. They agreed that 127 responses gave evidence of adjustments made by the 50 subjects in the five years after high school graduation and that 141 responses indicated that the subjects had serious problems. Similar study of the interviews by the two readers indicated that they had elicited evidence of 237 adjustments and 441 problems. The difference in the means for both categories was significant at the 1 per cent level. Of the 141 problems elicited by the mailed questionnaire 41.1 per cent were not mentioned during the interviews while 81.1 per cent of the 440 problems elicited by the interview had not been mentioned in the questionnaire. Apparently the interview elicited many responses that were not drawn out by the questionnaire method.

TABLE 2

Mean Number of Adjustments and Problems Elicited by the Mailed Questionnaire and the Interview Follow-up Methods

	Mailed Questionnaire	*Interview*	*Difference in Means*	*Level of Significance*
Adjustments	2.54	4.74	2.20	0.01
Problems	2.82	8.82	6.00	0.01

Exclusive of time, the total costs for the mailed questionnaire are comparable to those for contacting subjects with a request for an interview. Travel and recording expenses for personal interviews added to this total meant that for every dollar spent for the mailed questionnaire study, approximately $60 was spent on the interview procedure.

Conclusions

Study of the differences in response to mailed questionnaires and interviews revealed that:

1. The interviews elicited significantly more complete answers than the mailed questionnaires.
2. The interviews elicited a significantly greater number of responses that readers interpreted as evidence of adjustments and problems of the subjects in the five years after high school graduation.
3. Each follow-up procedure elicited evidence of problems faced by the subjects which did not appear on the other.
4. Two out of every three subjects responded consistently to items in the questionnaires and interviews. The proportion giving similar responses to the same item in the mailed questionnaire and the interview ranged from a high of 92 to a low of 27 per cent.
5. The subjects responded to questions that called for factual answers more often than to those which required evaluations.
6. The subjects responded more consistently to items that asked for factual data or yes-no check answers than to open-ended questions.
7. The length of the mailed questionnaire influenced the number of completed items. A significantly smaller percentage of responses was found for each succeeding page of the mailed form.

Summary

It seems clear that a differential did appear in the responses to the mailed questionnaires and interviews. Advantages of the interview in drawing forth more complete and extensive responses from the individuals were sharply defined in the results noted above. The economic advantages of the mailed questionnaire in saving cost and time were also sharply delineated. It appears, however, that the differences in the cost and time involved in securing data from representative secondary school graduates by the interview rather than the mailed questionnaire procedure is justified by the greater insight into the responders and the more complete responses which the interviews produce.

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AFTERCARE PROGRAMS THEME OF PHYSICAL THERAPISTS' MEETING

The American Physical Therapy Association will hold its 38th annual conference at the Palmer House in Chicago, Illinois, July 2–7, 1961. The theme of the scientific program will be "Aftercare Programs," dealing specifically with the pediatric patient, the ambulatory adult, and the geriatric patient.

The Use of The California Psychological Inventory with Gifted Pupils

LEON M. LESSINGER and RUTH A. MARTINSON

IN 1957 THE California Study of Programs for Gifted Pupils was authorized by the Legislature. The study was established under the auspices of the State Department of Education to study various approaches to the education of gifted pupils and to develop recommendations for legislative consideration.

A staff of six consultants conducted the study of 17 different program approaches within three county areas during the 1958–1959 school year. The total number of pupils involved in the study was 929, in grades ranging from first to twelfth. Of these, 436 were in the junior and senior high school grades.

The pupil population in the study was representative of the school population of the entire state. The total study included 32 school districts ranging in size from a total of 19 pupils to more than 450,000. The pupils came from farming areas as well as from urban business and industrial areas. Both the gifted and random populations were drawn from a cross section of rural and urban communities. Part of the eighth-grade random group, for example, contained randomly selected pupils taken from the eighth-grade population of an entire small community, while the others represented urban classroom groups.

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The complete study, *California Study on Programs for Gifted Pupils*, is available from the California State Department of Education, Sacramento.

In order to assess the effects of programs, a variety of measures was employed. Standardized achievement batteries, personality tests, rating scales, and questionnaires were used to evaluate the academic growth of pupils as well as changes in personal-social-attitudinal areas. One of the tests used with eighth graders and high school pupils was the California Psychological Inventory. The inventory was used for two purposes: (1) to give an initial measure of the personal and social maturity of gifted pupils within the junior and senior high school group and thus provide a basis for comparison with various other population groups; and (2) to furnish comparative data on the adjustment of gifted pupils in relation to controls at the termination of a year in special programs. The purpose of the present article is to present data on the performance of groups of gifted pupils in order to augment data already presented in the CPI Manual.

The CPI is designed primarily for use with high school and adult populations [*1*]. It was used with eighth graders in the California study, however, on the assumption that pupils with high general intellectual ability as measured by an individual intelligence test also have high general personal and social maturity several years in advance of their chronological age. Therefore, a personality test designed for an older group seemed reasonable for the eighth grade gifted.

Results

It was immediately evident, when the Inventory results were analyzed, that the

pupils identified through the use of an individual intelligence test displayed a level of personal and social maturity which was in keeping with their measured intelligence and achievement test performance. Eighth grade gifted boys, who actually were completing their seventh year, attained mean scores closely comparable to those of the composite high school and adult male norm populations on the 18 scales. The gifted eighth graders had an adjustment pattern which showed significantly favorable differences over random eighth graders on every scale. On the basis of general maturity, the gifted boys and their random chronological age-mates did not constitute a peer group. The maturity of the gifted eighth graders was much more closely related to that of the gifted high school boys and to the general adult population than to the general maturity of their age mates.

Further evidence of the high maturity level of gifted eighth grade boys was found by comparing them with norms for business executives [*1*]. While the total maturity pattern of business executives was higher, the gifted eighth graders were higher on the Socialization, Responsibility, Flexibility, and Communality scales.

Eighth grade gifted girls showed the same marked dissimilarity to random eighth graders as boys did. On 16 out of the 18 scales, highly significant differences in favor of the gifted were found. The only scale with no significant difference between the groups was Femininity.

On 11 out of 18 scales, differences between the eighth grade gifted girls and the high school gifted were non-significant. The four scales which yielded highly significant differences in favor of the high school gifted girls were Capacity for Status, Social Presence, Self-Acceptance, and Achievement via Independence. The Dominance and Intellectual Efficiency scales also favored the high school gifted significantly, while a significant difference was found in favor of the eighth graders on Sociability.

The high school gifted boys differed greatly from the average high school population [*1*]. On 14 out of 18 scales, there were highly significant differences in favor of the gifted, and one added scale showed a significant difference.

TABLE 1

Means and Standard Deviation for the 18 Scales of the California Psychological Inventory for Gifted Boys

	Eighth Random		*Eighth Gifted*		*High School Gifted*	
Scale	*Mean*	*S.D.*	*Mean*	*S.D.*	*Mean*	*S.D.*
Do	19.5	4.9	27.0	5.5	28.8	6.3
Cs	11.3	3.5	17.6	3.7	20.7	3.4
Sy	20.7	4.2	24.4	5.0	26.2	4.7
Sp	30.6	6.2	32.9	5.7	35.6	6.7
Sa	17.6	3.8	19.6	3.5	22.6	3.8
Wb	27.2	6.1	35.6	4.8	35.8	4.2
Re	21.5	5.8	31.7	4.3	31.1	5.1
So	29.9	5.3	40.8	4.9	38.1	6.4
Sc	18.0	7.2	28.2	8.8	25.8	8.3
To	12.1	4.8	22.4	4.4	23.1	4.5
Gi	10.3	4.7	16.9	6.8	15.8	6.3
Cm	23.6	3.5	26.4	1.8	25.4	2.1
Ac	16.4	4.4	26.3	4.2	27.2	4.6
Ai	10.9	3.5	18.0	3.9	20.8	3.5
Ie	26.0	5.3	38.7	4.4	40.5	4.3
Py	7.9	2.7	11.2	2.7	12.0	2.6
Fx	7.7	2.7	9.4	3.4	11.0	4.0
Fe	15.1	3.4	17.4	3.2	16.1	3.4
N	82		94		157	

When high school gifted boys were compared with college norms, highly significant differences appeared on only six of the 18 scales. On five of these (Social Presence, Well-being, Self-control, Good Impression, and Achievement via Conformance) the college group was significantly higher, while the high school group rated significantly higher on Socialization.

The high school gifted girls had highly significant scores beyond those of the norm group on 13 out of 18 scales and were significantly higher on one more. The only scales which did not differentiate the two groups significantly were Self-control, Good Impression, Communality, and Femininity. The most closely similar groups found in all of the comparisons of the gifted with various populations were the high school gifted girls and the college norm group. The two groups were highly similar on 11 out of 18 scales. The college group had significantly higher ratings on Social Presence, Well-being, Self-control, and Good Impression, while the high school gifted were significantly higher on Self-acceptance, Communality, and Femininity.

Discussion and Summary

When gifted students are compared with norm groups and with other gifted students at the junior and senior high school levels, interesting speculations arise. These speculations center upon the question of what constitutes a peer group. We have been accustomed to determining peer groups on the basis of chronological age. Yet, on the basis of the evidence from the California Psychological Inventory, the chronological age basis is questionable as the sole criterion. Gifted eighth graders are not like random eighth graders; high school gifted students are not like their norm population age mates. Rather, gifted students in the secondary school seem to attain psychological maturity early and tend to resemble one another closely regardless of a wide age range. If one sought a peer group for the gifted student, intelligence level would be of concern along with chronological age.

Because of the evident wide discrepancies between gifted students and their contemporaries, chronological age norms are not completely useful for the assessment of the psychological maturity of the gifted. The

TABLE 2

Means and Standard Deviation for the 18 Scales of the California Psychological Inventory for Gifted Girls

Scale	*Eighth Random* *Mean*	*S.D.*	*Eighth Gifted* *Mean*	*S.D.*	*High School Gifted* *Mean*	*S.D.*
Do	20.7	4.7	27.2	5.3	29.0	5.8
Cs	12.2	4.1	18.7	3.8	21.5	3.8
Sy	21.7	4.1	25.1	5.0	26.5	4.7
Sp	29.7	5.6	33.3	6.3	35.7	5.7
Sa	18.1	3.8	20.6	4.3	22.3	3.5
Wb	30.0	5.6	35.3	5.5	36.0	5.2
Re	26.0	4.9	33.1	4.3	33.6	3.8
So	37.2	5.6	42.3	4.7	40.4	5.1
Sc	23.2	7.6	30.8	9.1	28.6	8.1
To	15.1	4.9	22.9	5.2	24.3	4.3
Gi	11.7	4.9	18.1	7.5	16.3	5.6
Cm	25.5	2.0	26.1	1.7	26.3	1.8
Ac	20.2	5.0	28.0	4.6	28.2	5.0
Ai	12.9	3.8	19.0	3.8	21.6	4.0
Ie	30.2	4.9	39.7	5.2	41.6	4.4
Py	7.5	2.5	10.8	3.0	11.3	3.0
Fx	8.3	3.5	10.0	3.6	11.0	3.6
Fe	23.2	4.0	23.5	3.6	23.5	3.4
N	90		77		107	

norms presented in the tables within the present article, based on a gifted population, seem to be more appropriate in the evaluation of a gifted group than do norms for a random population.

Questions inevitably arise regarding factors which contribute to differences in psychological maturity between random and intellectually gifted populations. How much does the superior ability of the gifted to understand concepts influence their general psychological maturity? What part does reading ability play? How much does the presence of the less perceptive or less endowed pupil in the random population affect the random norm?

These questions are difficult, if not impossible, to answer. While the eighth grade random population reported in the present article did contain a representative range of abilities, no mentally retarded pupils were included. The gifted population also contained a wide range of abilities. The important point is that great differences in psychological maturity were found between groups of random and gifted pupils and that these differences point toward the need for serious consideration of the maturational level of the individual gifted pupil in psychological as well as intellectual areas when planning his school experiences.

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NEW FILM ON TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Knowledge and Skills, a new film, reports on students in trade and industrial programs in the public schools. Narrated by Alex Dreier, well-known newscaster, the film was produced for the Sears-Roebuck Foundation in cooperation with the American Vocational Association. Prints of the 20-minute 16mm sound motion picture may be borrowed free from Modern Talking Picture Service, 3 East 54th Street, New York 22, N. Y.

Interpreting the College Student to Prospective Employers, Government Agencies, and Graduate Schools

DIRCK W. BROWN

Each week colleges and universities are called upon to answer written and verbal inquiries seeking information about their students. These inquiries are directed to student personnel administrators and other staff, and they may come from numerous offices and agencies outside the collegiate community, such as the F.B.I., business firms, educational foundations, or simply from other colleges and universities. Typical of the inquiries received is the following addressed to a dean of students from the personnel officer of a business firm:

> We shall appreciate it if you give us your opinion of ____________, particularly as to his moral character, ability, willingness to work and honesty . . . we will treat your reply confidentially.

Survey of Current Practices

A study of existing practices for dealing with inquiries in selected colleges and universities was undertaken in the spring of 1958 to provide data for the identification of issues and problems regarding these practices. The need to identify actual practices was considered important in relation to such questions as: What rationale is employed by collegiate administrators in dealing with inquiries? How can the college resolve its complex obligation to the agency requesting information, to the student, and to the institutional community? Upon what basis does the administrative officer determine which aspects of the student's record are "public information" and which are "private information?" Are practices for dealing with inquiries affected by the fact that some students are well known to the staff and other students are not known, with little, if any, available information?

Interviews to identify practices and to determine the content of typical inquiries were held with student personnel administrators and other staff at 11 institutions. Also, interviews were conducted with business, industrial, and governmental officers as to the type and use of the student information they request. The results of these interviews provided the basis for a questionnaire addressed to deans of students, deans of men, deans of women, and other staff in 200 collegiate institutions throughout the country.

Seven Briefs Presented

The questionnaire consisted of seven situational cases which approximated the actual task involved in dealing with typical inquiries. Each case contained selected information about a fictitious student, followed by an inquiry pertaining to that student. The cases included an inquiry from a business firm seeking information about a student who had been hostile to participating in extracurricular activities; an inquiry from a prospective employer asking about the character of a student who had allegedly created disturbances in his residence hall; a personal inquiry from an F.B.I. agent regarding a student who had participated in a student group organized to discuss Marxist ideology; an employment inquiry about an engineering student with emotional difficulties; an inquiry from another college requesting specific information about "acts of dishonesty" with respect to a student who had previously been disciplined for cheating; and an inquiry from a government intelligence agency regarding the past activity of a woman who had graduated eight years prior to the inquiry.

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The respondent was asked to deal with each case as he would in his own professional situation and to indicate whether his answers were based on his own judgments or on policies in effect in his office or institution. One hundred usable questionnaires were returned or 50 per cent of those sent.

To illustrate the questionnaire cases, the *Case of Ted and June* is reported in detail:

Ted and June have been "going steady" ever since they entered your institution three years ago, when they were both 18 years of age. You know Ted from his membership on the inter-fraternity council and, while you have seen Ted and June together at college social functions, you have not come to know June. Both Ted and June, scholastically, rank in the upper quarter of their class.

Much to your surprise, the Dean of Women comes to you several days before the end of their junior year to tell you that June and Ted have "broken up." She then tells you that June is withdrawing from college after her final exams, and June has

TABLE 1

The Approach of 100 Deans to an Inquiry From Another Institution Concerning a Transfer Student*

Response Categories	*Number Replying*	
1. Describes or reports the information in the case concerning June's accusation that Ted is the father of her unborn child:		
a. "I would report the incident ... Tell the truth ... give the full facts."	40	
b. "Yes, he was involved in one situation"	13	
c. "Yes, he was involved in an incident, but he left our institution before I could talk with him."	8	
d. "Yes, he was involved in a situation ... tell of the incident, but stress that this is hearsay information ... Yes, but this was not proven"	5	
e. "Yes, he was involved, but I'd recommend him for admission to your institution"	1	
		67
2. Does not describe or report the information in the case concerning June's accusation:		
a. "I would tell nothing ... I would refuse to answer this question."	12	
b. "I have no first hand knowledge with respect to Ted's sexual life."	4	
c. "I would do nothing until I talked with Ted."	3	
d. "Just cite Ted's academic record and ignore the question regarding sex."	1	
		20
3. Implies Ted's involvement in "sexual irregularities," but does not report the information in the case:		
a. "I would suggest you (the other institution) talk with Ted concerning his record."	3	
b. "I question Ted's sense of responsibility."	1	
		4
4. Replies in terms of other considerations:		
a. "I would release information only with Ted's consent."	2	
b. "Refer the inquiry to the dean of women."	1	
c. "I'd suggest the other college discipline Ted."	1	
d. "If it isn't private information, I would not recommend Ted to the other institution."	1	
		5
Total		96
No Answers		4
		100

* The specific question in the inquiry was: "To your knowledge, has the applicant been involved in sexual irregularities?"

confided that Ted is the father of the baby she is expecting in six months. The Dean of Women further tells you that Ted is transferring to another college to complete his degree and that, while he admits responsibility for the situation, he "refuses to have anything more to do with June." You ask the Dean to make a note of this in her confidential files and you do the same. You send a message to Ted asking him to see you, but learn that he has finished his exams and left the campus.

Four weeks after the close of the examination period you receive a written inquiry from the college to which Ted is transferring for his senior year. The inquiry states: "The above named student, who has attended your institution, is applying to us for transfer. We would appreciate your appraisal of the items which follow. The information furnished will be held in strict confidence, and adverse criticism will not necessarily prejudice the admission of the applicant."

One of the questions asked is: "To your knowledge, has the applicant been involved in sexual irregularities?"

The respondent was asked to answer the following questions about the case:

1. What would you say about Ted in answering this question? (TABLE 1)

2. If you were acquainted with the Dean at the other college, would this influence your approach to the inquiry? If so, how would it influence it? (TABLE 2)

3. If you received a general inquiry from this college asking, "We would appreciate any comments you can make in the nature of a general appraisal of the applicant's leadership, emotional adjustment and character," what would you say in reply? (TABLE 3)

TABLES 1, 2, and 3 report the responses to the *Case of Ted and June*. The differences in replies shown in TABLE 1 suggest varying interpretations of the extent to which the other institution should be given the full details. It should be noted that five deans would report some irregularity (TABLE 1, category 1,d), yet also indicate that proof is not available. A more clear-cut approach is suggested by the replies of 20 other deans (TABLE 1, category 2). They suggest, by their approach, that the rules of evidence are important in this situation. The same approximate pattern of response is found by comparing TABLE 1 and TABLE 3.

The replies to this case suggest that many deans regard the case material as appropriate information to report to another institution. On the other hand, some deans approach both the general and specific inquiry by declining to answer them; the information in the case is apparently either not pertinent to the inquiries or not adequate enough. Other deans, in stressing selected aspects of Ted's record—academic

TABLE 2

The Replies of 100 Deans Concerning Whether or Not Acquaintance with the Dean at Another Institution Would Influence Their Approach to an Inquiry Concerning a Transfer Student

Response Categories	*Number Replying*	
1. "No, it would not influence my approach to the inquiry"	61	
2. "Yes, it would influence my approach to the inquiry"	34	
Total		95
No answers		5
		100

"If you answered 'yes' above, how would it influence your approach?"
The following responses were given by the 34 deans who answered, "Yes, it would influence my approach":

1. "I would write or call or contact the dean to explain the situation . . . I would call to give more details . . . I would be more candid"	26	
2. "Yes, but this would depend on the other dean . . . Yes, it would depend on how well I knew the other dean—how much confidence I had in him"	8	
		34

and extracurricular—apparently feel that this information is more pertinent to the question of a student's eligibility for transfer than information with respect to alleged sexual behavior.

Issues and Recommended Practices

The data obtained through the questionnaire and interviews provided a basis for the identification of issues with respect to the colleges' task in dealing with inquiries. These issues, and their implications, are presented in the form of recommended practices—practices which should not be viewed as conclusive principles but rather as points of reference or guidelines to aid institutions in assessing their own procedures and policies.

Colleges and universities should critically review their student record system as it relates to dealing with inquiries.

Policies for collecting and recording in-

TABLE 3

The Approach of 100 Deans to a General Inquiry From Another Institution Concerning a Transfer Student

Response Categories	*Number Replying*	
1. Replies by questioning Ted's character, responsibility and/or emotional adjustment:		
a. "I would question his character . . . I would say that he is immature and irresponsible . . . His emotional adjustment is open to question.".	25	
b. "Yes, I would question his character and responsibility but I would talk with Ted first."	3	
	—	
		[illegible]
2. Replies by citing incident with June described in the case:		
a. "I would cite the facts of the incident . . . report the truth . . ."	17	
b. "I would cite the facts of the incident with Ted's permission."	3	
c. "I would cite the facts of the case for one college owes this to another college.".	2	
d. "I would give the facts but also suggest that the other college talk with Ted about it."	1	
	—	
		23
3. Replies by citing other aspects of Ted's record:		
a. "I would give positive information about Ted—stress his academic record and extra-curricular participation."	11	
b. "Ted can reenter our institution."	1	
	—	
		12
4. Replies by declining to answer the question:		
a. "I would not reply to this question."	7	
b. "I need more information to answer this question."	4	
c. "I would first determine who was responsible for the incident before answering this question."	1	
	—	
		12
5. Replies by citing incident in case but also refers to academic and/or non-academic record:		
a. "Cite the facts of Ted's involvement with June but I would also stress his academic and extra-curricular record."	11	
	—	
		11
		—
Total		86
No answers		14
		—
		100

formation about students within the institution should take into account the task of dealing with outside inquiries. While adequate student records are needed to understand and assist the student during his collegiate experience, the use of this information in response to outside inquiries often requires the application of different criteria. It appears that few institutions have deleted needless, and often irrelevant, information from their student records, nor does the literature of student personnel work reflect a concern that this be accomplished.

Moreover, the findings of this study suggest that both the comprehensive student information collected and the diverse inquiries received may tend to obscure the need for selectivity and critical judgment in the use of this information.

Distinctions need to be made between the public and private aspects of the student record.

The findings suggest that quite diverse and comprehensive aspects of the student's record—personality, character, conduct, and other personal information—are considered appropriate for release in response to inquiries.

Clear distinctions between student information for internal consumption and that which appropriately may be released should be made as student record procedures are reviewed or preferably as they are instituted. Often, judgments regarding the meaning of student life during the undergraduate years are not appropriate guidelines for interpreting the student in response to inquiries—particularly, inquiries received after the student graduates. Specific procedures for the periodic destruction of information and the regular evaluation of its current significance would further reduce the chances that essentially "private" information would be inappropriately released. Responsible institutional practice requires clearly defined and well-publicized statements with respect to the public and private areas of the student record. The consequences of such definitions of policy might be that the college, the student, and agencies outside the institution would be more realistically insured of their respective rights and obligations in relation to the question of student inquiries.

Interpreting, rather than reporting information, is essential to good practice.

The data of the study suggest that an important consideration for practice is whether student information is interpreted or merely reported in dealing with inquiries. Deans who "report the facts," "tell the truth," or "fully cooperate," in dealing with inquiries imply, by their position, that it is the responsibility of the inquirer to evaluate the meaning of the information released. As one dean explained:

> All through your questionnaire you are raising the question of whether *I* shall evaluate the significance of the record or whether the *inquirer* shall evaluate the significance of the record. Now, in the case of the academic record, we simply let the *inquirer* do the judging. Is not the behavioral record similar? We must give *facts*—in addition, if we have opinions and conclusions, we have a responsibility to include them.

A preferable approach is indicated by those deans and other staff who are reluctant to deal with certain inquiries, who comment that information cited about the student is not pertinent to the inquiry, or who refer, for example, to the need for subsequent information about a student who has graduated several years prior to the time when the inquiry is received. These deans consider it their function, rather than that of the inquirer, to first judge the significance of the record (before dealing with an inquiry). In so doing, their approach reflects a concern for the colleges' obligation to student.

Each inquiry should be evaluated in terms of its relevancy to available information about the student.

The questionnaire results indicate that some respondents generally overlooked the fact that available information about the student may not be pertinent to the specific content of the inquiry.

In terms of ethically sound practice, the release of irrelevant information, the tendency to generalize and assume meanings which do not exist both in the student

record and the inquiry, again underscores the need to assess carefully whether or not each inquiry is clearly relevant in terms of exactly what is known about the student. If it is irrelevant, the request for information should be declined.

The integrity of the institution and the welfare of the student depend on the extent to which only verified, factual information is released. The rules of evidence—criteria for determining the veracity of the person reporting information about the student, and for distinguishing between rumor, gossip, second-hand information and factual, first-hand, verified information—are an important instrument for facilitating the college's responsibility to all concerned.

Specific information about the purposes of the inquiry and possible uses of information released are essential to good practice.

Just as inferences and assumptions about the meaning of student data are inimical to good practice, neither should those who deal with inquiries presume that the purposes of inquiries are, in every instance, what they appear to be.

Judgments with respect to the possible fitness of a student or former student for employment in a particular firm often require a detailed knowledge of the specific skills and requirements of the position in question. While student scholastic achievement may be clearly related to certain criteria for fitness in a particular job, a far less clear relationship exists between the student's record of extracurricular participation, or record of involvement in disciplinary situations, and potential for successful employment.

Personal inquiries, such as information sought in person by an employer representative or government agent, offer a better chance for the college to assess the actual and possible ways in which student information will be utilized outside the institution. However, the position of certain government agencies that it is not their function to evaluate information secured might well be cause for a more critical and cautious approach in dealing with inquiries from these agencies.

Students should be involved in policies and practices with respect to the external use of information and the formulation of policy for dealing with inquiries.

It is paradoxical that the student is often encouraged to participate in building and maintaining his undergraduate record; yet, according to the findings of this study and a survey of the literature, he is generally not consulted about inquiries received about him or institutional practices in this area.

In the writer's view, students are often unsure as to the exact purposes and possible uses of their student personnel or academic records. Consequently, an important area of student concern is not being used for potentially educative purposes.

While it is impractical to consult the student with respect to each inquiry received, it is important that student permission, in many instances, be secured before information is released—particularly information which the student may not have known exists in his record and is considered public information by his institution. Again, colleges are legally justified in collecting information about students consistent with the educational functions of the institution. Ethically, however, the release of this information for purposes about which the student may not have full knowledge imposes a serious responsibility upon the college or university.

The situation of the student who seeks a personal recommendation or otherwise grants permission for the interpretation of his record is quite different from that of the student about whom an inquiry is received without his knowledge. The data indicate that, in many instances, student permission is apparently assumed by the college staff person in dealing with inquiries where, in fact, such permission does not exist.

On a broader level, there are other reasons for student involvement in questions of institutional policy and practice. Student participation offers educative benefits for the student and the institution with the consequence that the atmosphere of freedom and cooperation is strengthened between the student and his college.

Institutional policy is preferable to personal judgment as a basis for practice.

Forty deans indicated that their responses to the questionnaire were based on personal judgments; 44 based their replies on both personal judgment and institutional policy.

Well-defined policies subject to periodic review by responsible committees and based on the judgments of both students and staff offer several advantages. Such policies and the premises upon which they rest may be circulated and publicized among the institutional community, thereby serving to clarify this aspect of the student-college-relationship. Statements of policy may also serve to define the college-inquirer relationship with the result that an inquirer would know what information can or cannot be expected from the institution.

Responsibility for the formulation of policy should evolve from study and consideration by a committee composed of both faculty and administrative personnel, whose task it is to deal with inquiries, and a representative group of students. A review of existing practices should provide the basis for developing guidelines.

The periodic review of policy would provide for needed flexibility as changes occur in the definition of institutional objectives, administrative organization, composition and characteristics of the student body, and other factors. Changes in policy should, in turn, be publicized for all concerned.

Should a college or university see no need for formal institutional policy, it still has the obligation to inform students and those making inquiries of the criteria used for dealing with inquiries.

Policies and practices for interpreting the student have important implications for the student-college relationship.

In terms of the issues and considerations outlined above, the role of the college or university in interpreting its students involves important implications for the quality of the student-college relationship —student morale, attitudes toward the institution, and understanding its purposes.

Practices for dealing with inquiries may serve to define standards of student behavior and the quality of the student's participation in the life of the institutional community. Unfortunately, there is some indication that practices may serve as instruments controlling student life. Whether or not this is an appropriate purpose or consequence of student records and their use is a question needing serious consideration by the college and university.

Evidence that students are unsure as to how their records are used and, in some instances, concerned about how their records may affect their future, further suggests an important relationship between practices and the student's perceptions and attitudes about his college experience. One of the more disquieting findings of the study is suggested by the number of deans who treat as public information a record of past student disciplinary involvement despite the fact that the student was subsequently restored to good standing.

The use of information about students should serve to facilitate student freedom, not inhibit a desire to explore diverse areas of inquiry and association, and increase the possibility that students will resist those norms which tend to reduce individuality.

The student's experience is more likely to be characterized by these conditions in institutions where: (1) the record is interpreted rather than reported; (2) the student is consulted and involved in policies and practices for the use of his record; (3) distinctions are made between the public and private, significant and insignificant, pertinent and irrelevant, outdated and current information as it is interpreted to those outside the institution.

The practices of a small, yet significant, minority of deans and other staff participating in the study reflect a concern for these considerations. For this reason, their practices and views underscore an approach to inquiries which should be more widely adopted by college and universities, particularly if the student-college relationship is to be characterized by a sense of responsibility and freedom which will best prepare the student for his role as a responsible citizen.

An Evaluation of the Lecture and Role-Playing Methods in the Development of Interviewing Skills

BENJAMIN BALINSKY and ANGELO DISPENZIERI

Two major methods used in the training of interviewers are the lecture method in which the principles and techniques of effective interviewing are expounded either with or without discussion and the role-playing method in which the trainees participate as interviewers throughout the training period. The latter method invariably includes some discussion and lecture on principles of effective interviewing.

The authors' experience in training interviewers in college and industrial settings has pointed to the overwhelming superiority of the role-playing method to the lecture method.

Maier [3] has stated that "Lectures are of little value in changing attitudes, developing job skills or training in human relations skills." No mention is made of the experimental evidence demonstrating the relative effectiveness of each method. Specifically, the authors found that the most significant lack in the trainee was the inability to catch feeling tone. The trainee was found to use his own frame of reference in evaluating the interviewee's statements, thereby overlooking the true meanings. In order to overcome this lack in the trainee, the non-directive technique of reflection and clarification of feeling was emphasized.

It was felt that a more relevant test of the ability to reflect feelings was possible if the statements made by the client were verbalized via a tape recorder rather than presented in mimeographed form. An excerpt from an interview given by Porter [4] was chosen since it offered the material necessary for our purposes. The 20 statements of which the interview consists were tape recorded by an undergraduate senior who had had acting experience. The time between statements was recorded on the tape as a full minute. Pretesting determined that one minute allowed for spontaneity and most people were able to respond in writing to the statements. Less time made them unable to record the statements.

Each of the 20 statements allows a reflection of feeling response, and the subjects were to write their responses on paper. The highest attainable score is 20 and the lowest is zero. Each response was weighted five points to facilitate statistical analysis.

This paper is an attempt to empirically demonstrate the relative effectiveness of the lecture and discussion method, and role-playing added to discussions and lectures. A specific analysis of the categories of responses one can expect from trainees exposed to either method was also made.

Since the college setting lends itself to greater control than the industrial situation, the authors used the undergraduate student population at the Baruch School. However, even here we did not have complete control. It was not possible to set up special groups of students, having one group undergo only lectures and another group only role-playing. But we had what looked like a natural setting to measure the effects of role-playing when added on to the lecture method.

Procedure

All students at the Baruch School are required to take General Psychology. A sampling of students in the General course was used as the control. The course in Vocational Psychology included lectures and discussions on the interview. The students in this course all had General Psy-

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chology. The course in Vocational Psychology was required for admission to the Interviewing course where role-playing of interviewing was conducted. The students in the Interviewing course made up our third group, called the experimental group. There was then, a cumulative effect. Also, it should be noted that there was no significant difference in age from group to group. Students of different ages enter each class. The number of psychology courses taken by the students in the lecture group and the interview group also showed much overlap and no statistical difference between the means.

The total number of students originally participating in the experiment was 115. However, only 93 of these subjects were finally included because of absences and incomplete data. Forty-three students in General Psychology were the controls. There were 36 subjects in Vocational Psychology and 14 in the Interviewing course. The 14 students were the only ones who had role-playing training.

The subjects were exposed to the following conditions:

1. Introductory psychology (referred to as group 1) received the usual introductory lectures, films, laboratory exercises, and quizzes, all of which were integrated with Hilgard's [2] text.

2. The Vocational Psychology (group 2) students as part of the course had two weeks (6 hours) of lectures on interviewing principles. The rest of the semester dealt with the administration of paper and pencil tests; problems of test construction and the theories of counseling and occupational choice. The basic text in this course was Blum and Balinsky's [*1*].

3. The Interviewing students (group 3) received four hours of lectures on interviewing and 16 hours of role-playing including discussions and observations of role-playing.

During the first week of the semester, all the subjects in all groups listened to a tape of a part of an interview [*4*] recorded by a student actor in a senior psychology class. Only the counselee statements were recorded. The counselor's statements were omitted. The students were to respond as if they were interviewing the student. They were allowed one minute to write each response in pre-numbered booklets. The students were given the following instructions: "On this tape recording is the voice of a student who has come to the school counselor. Please respond to his statements as though you were a counselor and record your statements in the blue booklets. You will have one minute to write your response to each of his statements. The blank intervals on the tape have been timed to one minute. No questions now. Please begin."

During the 15th week of the semester, the tape recording was played back in each class with the identical instructions. All students that had not taken the test in the beginning were eliminated from the analysis but were permitted to participate in the post-test.

Hypotheses

I. Students exposed to lectures and discussions in general psychology will be less able in reflecting feeling in the interview excerpt (called the C.I.T.) than students who have been exposed to lectures on interviewing principles and methods plus general psychology.

II. Students exposed to general psychology and to lectures on interviewing principles and methods will be less able in reflecting feelings on the C.I.T. than students exposed to general psychology and lectures on interviewing principles and methods, plus actual interviewing role-playing.

Content Analysis

Each author read a sample of 20 of the student protocols to the C.I.T. and independently set up specific categories for the interview responses given. The agreement between the two judges was well over 95 per cent. Where there was disagreement the basis for the difference was discussed until a category was arrived at. A total of four categories were finally agreed upon and the authors scored each protocol independently. As a check on the correctness of the scoring each protocol was scored twice. The cate-

gories are: Reflection of Feeling, Probing, Reassurance, Ego-defensive.

Results

Hypotheses I and II were sustained. The mean number of reflections for each of the three groups[1] showed increase as more instruction was given. It is of interest to note the almost total absence of reflections in the control group. The second group showed a rise in reflections but it was not statistically significant. The third group made a great jump forward in number of reflections and the mean difference was very significant. Analysis of variance between and within groups shows a significance beyond the 0.001 level.

A further analysis of the data in terms of specific responses on the C.I.T. indicates marked differences between the experimental group and the two other groups. We took the number of probes (questions), instances of reassurance, and ego-defensive statements as the basis for differentiating among the groups. These kinds of statements were seen most frequently in the untrained novice. It was expected that the experimental group after role-playing training would ask fewer questions and give fewer reassuring and ego-defensive responses.

Analysis of the data clearly showed that the role-playing group used the fewest number of probes, statements of reassurance, and ego-defensiveness. The differences are statistically significant beyond 0.01.

It is of interest to note that the lecture group gave on the average more probes and ego-defensive statements than did the General Psychology group. These differences are probably due to anxiety resulting from knowing principles of good interviewing and trying to employ them but not having the skill to do so. The General Psychology group did not know what it should do and therefore had no anxiety about what it was doing. They dealt more directly with the anxiety of the interviewee and tried to mollify his anxiety by reassurance. The lecture group knew reassurance by itself was of limited value to the interviewee. They wanted to know more about the problem and asked questions. They also felt defensive about not making the correct responses. The role-playing group did not show the difficulties of the lecture group. The variable isolated to account for the difference is the experience in role-playing.

[1] Statistical tables are in our files and are available to interested persons.

Summary

In this study, an attempt was made to determine the relative effectiveness of lecture and role-playing methods in interviewing training. It would have been ideal to have two equated groups and to run one through lectures and the other through role-playing. However, the cumulative effect of different training methods was measured. The results show that the group that had role-playing training plus lectures and general psychology gave reflection of feelings to a much more significant degree than the other groups. Also, they asked fewer questions and gave fewer reassuring and ego-defensive statements.

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SOME FUNDAMENTAL PROPOSITIONS IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF EVALUATION UNITS IN VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION

CHARLES W. THOMAS, DONALD P. SPANGLER, and SATORU IZUTSU

IN RECENT YEARS considerable attention has been devoted to various problems in vocational rehabilitation. No problem, however, has caused more concern than that of vocational appraisal of physically disabled individuals. These evaluation methods are known by various names, such as work evaluation [*1, 3*], prevocational evaluation [*4, 8, 9*], or Guidance Test Class evaluations [*2, 10*], and have been explored by such personnel as physicians, occupational therapists, research psychologists, and vocational and rehabilitation counselors. As a consequence, the purposes of these methods are as varied as the disciplines of the supervising staff. The techniques are reported to be valuable in assessing basic abilities, work capacities, physical capacities, areas of interest, and personality. Other uses have included counseling aids, occupational information, training, job placement, and follow-up services. Despite differences, there is apparent agreement on the use of actual work tasks and qualitative scoring methods. There is also the tendency to view standardized tests as being of extremely small value in assisting handicapped clients with problems of vocational adjustment. However, in the widely scattered literature there is little technical evidence to support the effectiveness of methods or to substantiate the claims made.

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A Need for Technical Orientation

Publications describing various "prevocational" techniques tend to emphasize the therapeutic aspects of these evaluations at the expense of statistical considerations. For such appraisals one must ask, where is the proof? Are the techniques consistently measuring the functions that were desired to be measured? When reproduced, how accurately will the behavior be measured? The best answers are to be found in the computation of validity and reliability coefficients. This evidence will lead to the development of theory on a sound basis. It is quite possible that the current discrepancies in theoretical orientation stem from lack of technical unity in vocational rehabilitation.

There is a conspicuous lack of normative data accompanying the results of these evaluations. Interpretations based upon age, education, disability, sex, and occupational level would give a rich understanding of the individual. Lacking such comprehensive data, the evaluations generally are reduced to clinical judgments, such as inferior, average, or superior. Therefore, it is imperative that we know just what average performance is on a specific work task. According to current practices, this would depend upon the type of setting and training of the examiner, with the judgments rarely being based upon rigidly defined traits of an appropriate reference group.

Technical propositions of theoretical importance ultimately have to be considered in terms of practical application. The realistic recognition of economy factors is needed as much as validity and reliability in measure-

ment theory and practice. It is indeed a unique rehabilitation agency that can afford a work-task unit which is comprised of job samples representative of the major occupational families. Moreover, rehabilitation workers well trained in industrial work methods are virtually nonexistent.

Psychologists who have appraised the merits of situational and miniature testing programs note several relevant conclusions. Super [6], pointing out that there are a number of unknown psychological variables entering evaluations of this type, states:

> It is clearly more practical to analyze each occupation or activity into its important component factors, develop relatively independent tests of each factor or aptitude, validate each of these, and weigh each test for each occupation according to its importance in that occupation. This makes possible testing for a large number of occupations with a relatively small number of tests.

He also mentions the use of testing materials which are concrete and which possess the characteristics of an everyday activity. Such materials when combined into a performance test are thought to be meaningful to most people. In this same context, Thorndike and Hagen [7] consider that situational tests require evidence to demonstrate their practical value statistically and financially. Such verification found lacking, they regard situational testing as an area for research rather than a proved tool for personnel evaluation.

The Original Unit: Guidance Test Class I

From this technical orientation, the discussion to follow presents essentials of an evaluation program developed for a residential chronic disease population. Two developmental phases are covered in the transition from a loosely structured schedule to the current standardized procedure. For purposes of convenience, these phases have been defined as the original program and the refined program. Each approach used is considered with regard to the setting, the population, and its merit in evaluating capacity for work.

The findings are from a population of in-patients with various chronic neurologic and orthopedic conditions. In this group typical personal-social characteristics include irregular employment history at or below the semi-skilled level, low academic achievement, loose family organization, financial support from a welfare program, intellectual capacity in the dull-normal to low-average range, and alcoholism. All had adequate physical recovery for employment which ranged from sheltered shop placement in the hospital to competitive jobs in the community. Accordingly, such personal-social factors and the shop's industrial operations transformed a permissively organized evaluation program into a standardized specific procedure.

Evaluations, prior to the formalized industrial operations, were conducted in a special unit known as the Guidance Test Class I and supervised by an occupational therapist and a vocational counselor. This procedure was designed to explore vocational abilities, interests, aptitudes, and trainability by means of standardized vocational tests and actual work tasks. The work tasks were samples of occupations that existed in the hospital and in certain skilled trades and for which there appeared to be a demand in competitive industry. These representative activities covered clerical work, power sewing machine operation, woodworking—power tool operation, and light assembly-bench jobs. The tasks were not presented in any systematic manner; the individuals were assigned to these tasks not in respect to ability but according to availability of the tasks. Performance was appraised on a qualitative basis with much attention devoted to personal-social factors rather than to total potential for work.

Interspersed with the work tasks were standardized paper-and-pencil tests. This battery of tests came under the following broad categories: interest inventories, personality inventories, clerical aptitudes, mechanical comprehension, and manual dexterities. Although the major use of this battery was data collection for the modification of existing tests and for the construction of new tests, the results had limited practical use.

Conceding the highly restricted nature of

generalizations from the quantitative performance, we scrutinized the qualitative aspects. Each aptitude test was analyzed for speed and accuracy and judgments made accordingly. It was believed that this information would aid in objectifying the work task evaluations and in making appropriate shop placements. However, these procedures were successful for only a small proportion of the clientele.

The program lacked sufficient thoroughness to permit an accurate appraisal of skills of those individuals who were not at the opposite extremes in performance on the various tasks. That is, the evaluation of only clients who were very good or very poor on all tasks pointed up one of the inadequacies of the unit and posed a problem as how to conduct valid appraisals on our highly diversified population. This problem came sharply into focus when the supervisors noted wide discrepancies between actual shop performance and work task results. On the basis of this situation, an attempt was made to obtain data which would give, for example, a sound evaluation of the hemiplegic and yet permit him to be compared quantitatively with his primary reference group.

Program Refinement: Guidance Test Class II

With structural and content changes a new type of unit [2] came into existence, which narrowed the discrepancies between behavior observed in the shop and performance on the tests. To achieve this, certain conceptual changes were necessary. The primary concern shifted from the best job a client performed to the highest level at which he performed. This change led to a method of presentation based upon the difficulty of each task as ranked by the supervisors. In addition, one standardized test with modifications to suit local needs was included to obtain a measure of visual-perceptual organization.

Total performance was treated statistically to yield a score designated as "Work Quotient." This measure reflected six equally weighted categories: the ability to learn, the ability to produce, and the number of production rejects, a visual-perceptual organization score, work habits, and independence from supervision ratings. The split-half reliability coefficients of these categories were 0.92, 0.95, 0.88, 0.96, 0.66, 0.65, respectively. All of these coefficients were significant beyond the 0.01 level of confidence. By correlating the "Work Quotients" with quantified ratings of job performance, a validity coefficient of 0.63 was obtained. This coefficient was also significant beyond the 0.01 level of confidence. Thus, reliability and validity of the "Work Quotient" indicated that the scoring of clients' work capacities was possible by objective methods and that these scores would distribute clients in a meaningful manner along a continuum of work levels from high to low.

Due to the practical considerations of time, expense, and statistical justification, Guidance Test Class II was replaced by the Thomasat [5], an experimental technique designed to appraise cognitive-motor functions relevant to jobs performed in the sheltered workshop.

This performance scale has been used on the chronically disabled population in our hospital and takes approximately one hour to administer. The items are arranged in order of difficulty and successful performance is in terms of degree with points awarded for partially correct responses. The particular items appraise the 10 most commonly recognized hand functions and may be completed with one unimpaired hand.

The various subtests and the functions evaluated include:

a. Cylindrical grasp, grasp and release using dowels to determine various widths and lengths.
b. Ball grasp and three prehension pinch, grasp and release employing round, rectangular, and square blocks in sorting for colors, shapes, and in making geometric designs.
c. Two and three prehension pinch accompanied by grasp and release by placing dowels in designated holes.
d. Hook formation by curving the fingers to lift a five-pound box by the handle.
e. Coordinated bilateral arm and hand movements in tying a box with a piece of string.
f. Gross cylindrical grasp with flexion and exten-

sion or ulnar and radial deviation of the wrist using a hammer to drive nails in a block of wood.

g. Finger tips and/or paperweight stabilization in tracing a pig pattern on two sheets of standard bond paper with a pencil. Another task employing these functions requires the use of a ruler to measure prescribed distances.

h. Lever grasp with supination and pronation of wrist employing a screwdriver to place and remove screws.

i. Thumb, middle, and forefingers in a coordinated movement using scissors to cut paper pig patterns.

j. Palm or fist strength using a stapler to fasten paper pig patterns.

k. Fingernail pinch and two prehension pinch in picking up a needle, threading it, and sewing two pieces of cloth together.

l. Lateral pinch and eye-hand coordination using a pair of tweezers to place small nails in holes of a metal plate.

m. Two and three prehension pinch involving coordinate movements of the arm and hand in marking and aiming within a series of small circles.

n. Tactile discrimination by assessing the quality of grades of sandpaper and textures of cloth.

Product-moment correlations between the subtests and total test scores range from 0.31 to 0.80 with an average r of 0.60 (using Fisher's z transformation). The latter is significant at the 0.01 level of confidence and is indicative of the relative homogeneous nature of the individual subtest measuring those functions appraised by the total test. Correlational studies on 48 cases involving relationships between Performance IQ, Verbal IQ (both prorated from the WAIS), perceptual-motor behavior from Bender-Gestalt scores using Pascal-Suttell scoring, ratings of job performance, "Work Quotients" from Guidance Test Class II, and Thomasat scores were found to be significant beyond the 0.01 level of confidence ($r = 0.74$, 0.72, 0.77, 0.62, and 0.94, respectively). From the results, the influence of cognitive behavior in these manipulative activities appear rather prominent. The highly significant relationship between the Thomasat and "Work Quotients" from Guidance Test Class II indicated that these two methods were, to a great extent, encompassing the same functions. Consequently when the Thomasat became the primary testing method, staff time spent in conducting these appraisals was reduced by nearly 90 per cent. In a similar manner, costs of maintaining the evaluation unit were also reduced considerably.

The Thomasat is now used in conjunction with select psychometric instruments in making the vocational evaluations. This approach has resulted in a more efficient handling of client problems. For our clients, once their work level has been determined, the specific work content has only relative significance.

Summary

Progress in psychometric theory has advanced to a level where fundamental technical procedures should be observed in discussions of vocational testing programs. These procedures considerably enhance the value of evaluatory devices as aids in making predictive statements. In vocational rehabilitation, however, the most common practice is the use of actual work tasks and qualitative scoring methods to determine a client's capacity for job placement or training. This approach has created the rather widespread use of clinical assessment based upon factors other than standards from appropriate reference groups.

A research project, conducted on a residential chronically disabled population, found its evaluation program to be inadequate when the results lacked experimental evidence. Refinement in methodology based upon experimental procedure produced an evaluation program in which clients' abilities could be meaningfully distributed along a continuum. In this program, norms based upon the primary reference group gave a better understanding of clients and a more efficient handling of their problems.

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SURVEY RESEARCH TECHNIQUES INSTITUTE SLATED FOR MICHIGAN

A summer institute in Survey Research Techniques will be held at the University of Michigan for the 14th consecutive year. This program is designed to illustrate the theory and application of survey research to such fields as business and human relations, psychology and sociology, political behavior, public communication and influence, public health, economics, statistics, etc. Again this year a workshop will be offered in the practical application of survey research methods to these individual fields. The 1961 dates for the regular session are July 24 to August 19, with introductory courses offered from June 26 to July 22.

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GROUP GUIDANCE: TWO PROCESSES

JOHN L. RINN

Group guidance is an intriguing concept. It seems to offer the promise of serving the guidance function with less time and staff than the two-person counseling relationship requires. Yet few schools boast of successful group guidance programs, and few individuals agree on what "group guidance" means. Could there be a relationship between these two phenomena? I think there is, and I believe that the relationship is this: The term "group guidance" obscures the existence of two distinct group processes which differ in purpose and procedure, and perhaps in certain personal characteristics of the group leader.

Different Responses

I began to understand the importance of this distinction when I noted the responses of a university class to the question, "What do you wish to know about groups?" This was a graduate class composed largely of teachers and counselors interested in learning how to organize and conduct a group guidance program and how to be a group leader. My approach to the class was to help them learn about groups by *becoming* a group, and the first step, as I saw it, was to ask for clarification of our objectives. The responses to this question—with the benefit of some hindsight—fell into two categories. One set of responses had to do with such topics as:

How to organize individuals into efficient work patterns
How to distribute and collect information quickly
How to stimulate interest in school work
How to encourage high moral standards
How to maintain discipline

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These people seemed to me to be asking for methods and techniques of manipulating groups, and I shall refer to their primary purpose as being group instruction. Their educational objectives might include training in organized group discussion, panel discussion, debating, committee action, and perhaps role-playing.

Another set of responses—less numerous and more vaguely stated—had to do with such matters as:

How to solve problems in groups
How to influence participation in groups
How to make decisions in groups
How to evaluate groups

These people seemed to me to be asking for information on how individuals in groups attempt to influence one another, and I shall refer to their primary purpose as being group development. Their educational objectives seem to include the development of group methods of goal-setting, decision-making, and self-evaluation.

Instruction and Development

On the surface, these two sets of topics were not too dissimilar. However, during the course of the quarter, members interested in "instruction" had an inordinate amount of difficulty in communicating and cooperating with members interested in "development." This led me to suspect that a more basic difference in orientation existed between the two approaches to group guidance. Without being able to identify all of the factors which influenced my thinking on the problem, the following interpretation suggested itself.

Those Who Control

Instruction-oriented people are interested in group guidance as a means of implementing already established, clearly defined edu-

cational objectives. They tend to approach guidance from a somewhat traditional, authoritarian background and to view the group leader's function as being primarily that of *control*. (I use the word both in the sense of "giving direction" toward a pre-established goal and also in the sense of "holding down" or "preventing" behaviors which do not contribute to this goal.) They see the group leader, therefore, as needing such skills and techniques as will enable him to lead and direct a group toward goals of his own choosing. This does not imply that the leader will be insensitive to member "needs," "interests," etc., but rather that he will decide which needs are to be met and which are to be denied. Having taken the responsibility of decision-making upon himself (or feeling it thrust upon him), such a leader must then search for ways of manipulating the group so as to reach his predetermined goals. At the same time, he is aware that he is operating in a supposedly "democratic" society. Thus, he has certain ambiguous feelings about the legitimacy of his controlling role and understandably has difficulty in discussing it.

Perhaps because of these ambiguous feelings, instruction-oriented individuals do not like to hear the group leader's role described in terms of "control" or "manipulation." Their responses to such descriptions tend to be somewhat vehement and to contain such references as "respect for the individual," "start where the child is," etc. When the terms "guide" or "lead" are used, however, no such reactions ensue. Thus, it appears that these people have reached a compromise in which they are quite directive at the behavioral level, but can only talk about their behavior in "democratic" terms. In other words, they apparently equate "democratic" with "well-intentioned" and are unable or unwilling to explore the possibility of being a "benevolent autocrat."

During the course of the class, instruction-oriented individuals tended to see all class activities and purposes as being "cut and dried." My role in class discussions was seen as maneuvering the discussion in the direction that I wanted it to go. Even an extended period of free discussion failed to shake this belief. This seems to support the conclusion that such individuals have a deep-seated commitment to the use of control in interpersonal relationships.

The Permissive Leader

Development-oriented people, by way of contrast, can be characterized as being more interested in the unknown potentialities of group guidance—whatever they might be—than in the possible implementing of already clearly established goals. They tend to see the guidance program in terms of actualization of creative potentials and development of unique abilities and to view the group leader's function as being primarily that of *permission* to explore those potentials. The group leader's control, from this point of view, is mainly over himself; that is, he tries to keep his natural tendencies—to play the role of authority—from interfering too much with the developing group processes. This immediately implies that the group leader is no longer the sole decision-maker, for if group members are to shoulder the responsibilities that go with freedom, they must have enough authority to be able to make real choices—even under conditions of incomplete information. The group leader's problem, then, changes from one of control to one of *limits;* that is, his one decision for the group relates to identifying the natural limits of the social structure within which he and the group operates. In other words, freedom is not anarchy, and the group leader does not permit that which he has no authority to permit nor that which he is unwilling to accept the consequences of.

The development-oriented group leader is not free from mixed feelings about his role, however. Being sensitive to the needs and demands of group members, he may very well feel guilty or anxious when the group seems not to be progressing, or fails to accept the responsibility of decision-making, or criticizes the leader for not being stronger or more helpful. It was my experience that development-oriented individuals became nervous and complaining when group movement was slow; they tended to criticize other members for lack of coopera-

tion, and some of them seemed to give up hope for the group and to turn their energies into independent study. Thus, it appeared that their faith in "creative potentials" and "democratic processes" was not so deep and secure that it could not be shaken.

To summarize the above observations, it seems to me that I have identified two basically different orientations to group guidance. The difference in orientation determines whether a group leader will see the goal of group guidance as that of group instruction or group development. It also determines whether the group leader's role will be primarily that of controlling or permitting. For a given group leader, a basic orientation may have developed as a result of interpersonal needs to manipulate others, to be seen as an expert, to distrust others, or from lack of evidence regarding the outcomes of permissive procedures. A different orientation would be expected to result from different needs, from a belief in the capacity of people to learn self-responsibility, or from satisfying experiences under permissive conditions.

Role Incompatibility

If the above distinction is accepted, the next question is whether it is possible and desirable for a given leader to become proficient at both approaches. The two approaches are certainly incompatible in the sense that a group leader cannot simultaneously attempt to control a group and also permit the group to experience its own developing processes. They may be incompatible for other reasons as well. Thus, the question arises as to whether or not a group leader can successfully switch from one leadership style to another within a given group. My own feeling is that there are two obstacles to playing such a dual role, the first of which is within the leader. It is a difficult job for a person to maintain a consistent identity in a setting, such as the American school, which demands that one meet both the needs of society and of individuals. Yet consistency of identity is an essential aspect of good personal relations and of good mental health. The aforementioned difficulties of communication and cooperation between class members seemed to result from an inability to come to terms with some such inner conflicts. The apparent symptoms were a semantic cloak on one hand and an uneasy withdrawal from group participation on the other—the familiar mechanisms of denial and avoidance of conflict. In other words, these people could not understand each other because they could not understand themselves, and this self-understanding was impeded by an unrecognized, inconsistent orientation toward interpersonal relationships.

The second and more formidable obstacle to combining the two roles lies in the expectations of immature group members. Even when the group leader is sincere and consistent in his role, the often contradictory needs of group members force the leader to continually define and redefine his position. Every group seems to need to put its leader to this test. If the leader is successful in defining his role, the testing phase passes and the group progresses to its next goal. But what if the leader is not successful? Then, the group is apt to regard him as either confused or insincere. In either case, the subsequent work of the group is delayed, perhaps indefinitely. The effect on individual personalities may be even more undesirable. The clinical literature is replete with examples of persons whose alienation from life can be traced in part to insecurities developed in early years in response to inconsistent affectional and disciplinary behaviors by significant others. Are we simply going to say that teachers and counselors do not fall into the category of "significant others?"

My contention would be that each of the above sets of objectives is effectively learned only under a leader with an appropriate theory of human relationships. That is, I would contend that the permissive role is not played effectively by a group leader who is strongly oriented toward control in interpersonal relationships. His subtle attempts to manipulate will inevitably be recognized and interpreted as lack of faith in group capabilities. On the other hand, I would predict that many failures in "discipline" are really cases of permissive people trying

to play authoritarian roles that conflict with their basic beliefs in human capacity for self-direction. These contentions need to be tested in future research.

It is evident that research is most needed on the group outcomes which I have associated with permissive leadership, both because they have been investigated less frequently and because they have important implications for instructional and guidance programs. If "freedom" and "permissiveness" are important elements in our concept of democracy, then we need to explore to the fullest the outcomes of freedom and permissiveness in real social settings. Let us either discover the conditions under which these concepts are viable, or let us modify our theory of the "democratic school" to bring it into line with reality.

COLLEGE EVENING PROGRAM FOR YOUNGER WORKING STUDENTS

Hofstra College, Hempstead, New York, recently announced a course of study to be initiated by The Evening Program in September that will make it possible for high school students to obtain a degree in six years, even though employed during the day. The courses, class meetings, methods of teaching and study will be conducted with the younger, part-time, working student in mind, according to Dr. Edwin D. Duryea, Jr., Dean of The Evening Program. He also stated that the courses during the first two years will be separate from those scheduled for the older evening students. Those enrolled in the new program will attend classes two evenings a week and Saturday mornings during the regular fall and spring semesters and one summer session each year.

SELF-SATISFACTION AND LEVEL OF OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE

RICHARD A. SCHUTZ and DONALD H. BLOCHER

THE SELF-CONCEPT has been linked to various aspects of the occupational choice process in a number of theories of vocational choice. In a recent theory by Holland [5] it is proposed that the level of occupational choice within a given class of occupations is in part a function of self-evaluation. Holland contends that self-evaluation might best be defined by scales of occupational content such as the Occupational Level (OL) scale of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB). He maintains that a person's score for a scale such as this reflects his status needs, his perception of his level of competence and potential, and his self-estimate of worth with respect to others. The author suggests further that self-concept measures might well be used in exploring the determination of level of choice, and it was this suggestion that provided the stimulus for the research reported here.

Problem

This research stemmed from Holland's theory in that it sought to determine if a relationship exists between (1) an index of the level of occupational choice or aspiration and (2) a measure presumed to reflect one aspect of a person self-concept or self-attitude.

The index of level of occupational choice used was the OL scale of the SVIB, thereby following a suggestion of Holland. A number of other investigations [*1, 4, 6*] support Holland's belief and indicate that this scale can be interpreted as a general index of occupational aspiration.

The aspect of self-attitude with which the research was concerned is the similarity between an individual's self-description and his description of his ideal-self. For convenience of terminology, the measure reflecting the similarity between these two constructs was referred to as *self-satisfaction.* The similarity between self and ideal-self descriptions has been used extensively in research by Rogers, *et al.* [*8*], and has been linked to personality adjustment by these workers. Self-satisfaction, as defined here, is essentially a measure of the degree to which an individual identifies with his ideal-self concept. Furthermore, the construct self-satisfaction logically seems to be embraced by what Holland refers to as self-evaluation, which he suggests can be measured by the OL scale.

The problem, then, was to determine if a relationship existed between the following two independent variables: (1) a quantitative measure of self-satisfaction and (2) the OL scale of the SVIB. Holland's theory suggests that such a relationship exists.

Population

The population used in this research consisted of all male students (N = 135) in the 12th grade of a suburban senior high school. High school seniors were considered suitable for the investigation since it is reasonable to suspect that these individuals are actively concerned with making future vocational plans. They are presumably at points in their lives at which, if ever, they are attempting to test in their own thinking the compatibility of their self-concepts with the

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This article is based upon part of the joint research done by the writers for their 1959 Ph.D. dissertations at the University of Minnesota under Professors W. E. Dugan, E. P. Torrance, and C. G. Wrenn. These dissertations are available in microfilm from the University of Michigan.

roles supposedly called for by various occupations. Also, because of the relatively high reading level of the SVIB, it seemed logical to believe that seniors would be better able to cope with its reading demands than would students at any lower grade level. Only the male members of the class were studied because of the relatively greater amount of information concerning the use of the SVIB with men.

The community served by the school from which these subjects were drawn is atypical in many ways. The general educational level and socio-economic status of the community residents are considerably above average. As would be expected, this atypicalness is reflected in certain characteristics of the students. The average Otis Gamma IQ of the senior class is approximately 114. Approximately 85 per cent of the graduates of the high school enter college. This is a substantially greater percentage than one finds for the nation as a whole [9].

Procedure

The first step in the collection of data was the administration of the SVIB. This was done as part of the school's testing program approximately three weeks before the collection of the remaining data. The resulting SVIB profiles indicated each student's score on the OL scale and thus provided one of the two major variables of the study.

The remaining data consisted of each student's self and ideal-self descriptions. These descriptions were obtained through the use of a 180-item list of words and phrases entitled the Descriptive Check List (DCL). The DCL was designed especially for this research using the trait clusters of Cattell [2] as an item pool. The instrument sampled from 96 per cent of these clusters which Cattell considers to be a complete, comprehensive list of human personality characteristics described in the English language. Three response categories—yes, no, ?—were provided for each item. A subject responded to each item by marking an "X" in the response category which he believed most appropriate for that item as it applied to the construct, *i.e.,* self or ideal-self, being described. The DCL, as it was used in this study, was found to have a split-half reliability of 0.92.

Using the DCL in the manner described, each subject was asked to give his self-description. Then, following a brief interpolated task, each student was similarly asked to give his ideal-self description. These data were gathered during one of the students' regular class periods.

A similarity score was obtained for each student between his two check list descriptions. This score was obtained through the use of the d^2 statistic described by Cronbach and Gleser [3] and indicated the agreement between a subject's self and ideal-self descriptions. These scores were called *self-satisfaction* scores and provided a quantitative measure of the second major variable, self-satisfaction, of concern in the study.

The problem outlined earlier was stated in terms of the self-satisfaction and OL scores and in the form of a null hypothesis as follows: There is no relationship between self-satisfaction and SVIB OL scores.

Results

The distribution of SVIB OL scores for this population was found to have a mean of 49.7 and a standard deviation of 2.3. For the distribution of self-satisfaction scores a mean of 515.6 and a standard deviation of 65.7 were obtained.

The product-moment correlation coefficient was the statistical technique used to test the null hypothesis stated above. Since the existence of a normal bivariate population is an assumption underlying the use of this technique, the chi-square test for goodness of fit was next employed to determine if the two variables were normally distributed.

For the OL scores, the test of goodness of fit of the chi-square function gave a $\chi_0^2 = 1.72$. With 7 d.f. the probability of obtaining this large a value of χ^2 by chance alone was found to be $0.95 < P < 0.98$. It was concluded that the OL scores in this population were normally distributed.

Following the same procedure for the self-satisfaction scores, a $\chi_0^2 = 19.86$ was obtained. With 7 d.f. the probability of ob-

taining this large a value of χ^2 by chance alone was found to be $0.001<P<0.01$. It was concluded that the scores comprising this distribution were not normally distributed. The transformation procedure known as T scaling [7] was applied to normalize the distribution. The T scores were calculated so as to yield a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10.

The product-moment correlation coefficient was then computed between the distribution of SVIB OL scores and the distribution of transformed self-satisfaction scores. A correlation coefficient of 0.34 was obtained. Applying statistical tests, it was determined that the probability of obtaining this large a correlation by chance alone was less than 0.01. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected. In this population a significant positive relationship existed between these two variables.

Discussion and Conclusions

The rejection of the hypothesis of no relationship between self-satisfaction and OL scores can be interpreted as preliminary support for Holland's contention that a person's level of occupational choice and aspiration reflects his evaluation of himself, his feeling about his personal worth, and his satisfaction with himself. The findings lend support to his idea that self-evaluation can be measured best by scales of occupational content such as the OL scale. While a statistically significant relationship between these two variables was found, this of course does not mean that the relationship is perforce of marked practical significance or that it enables one to make predictions in individual cases.

There are at least two possible limitations of the investigation which should be pointed out. First, the index of self-satisfaction used was obtained with a new instrument developed especially for purposes of the study. Questions may arise concerning its suitability for use, since previous research evidence for the device was lacking. However, a claim for its reliability has already been made. Also, a claim has been implied for its content validity by virtue of the device's sampling from so large a percentage of the item clusters from Cattell's universe of personality characteristics.

A second factor which possibly represents a limitation of the research is the atypicalness of the population used. It is possible that the findings obtained for this group are different from those which would have been obtained for an unselected population. It does not seem unreasonable, though, to suspect that the magnitude of the correlation between the two variables might well have been greater than that actually obtained if a less homogeneous population had been used.

The statistically significant correlation obtained enables one to do at least some preliminary hypothesizing with respect to counseling problems. Clients with unrealistic levels of vocational aspiration are not an uncommon problem in counseling. The results of this research seem to suggest that such problems could be approached, at least in part, by working on the client's attitude toward himself rather than by focusing primarily upon his attitudes toward the world of work.

Holland's idea regarding the role that self-evaluation plays in determining level of occupational aspiration could be further investigated through the use of the DCL. One way of approaching this would be to determine if significant differences exist in mean self-satisfaction scores among groups of individuals making vocational choices at different points on the occupational hierarchy. In fact, with an instrument such as the DCL it becomes possible for an investigator to obtain from subjects their check list descriptions of an almost unlimited range of real or hypothetical individuals. This would thereby make possible the opening of numerous avenues of research in exploring subjects' self-attitudes and their attitudes toward the world of work.

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FOUR-YEAR SCHOLARSHIPS AVAILABLE FOR HEALTH CAREERS

The National Foundation for Medical Scientific Research, Professional Education and Medical Care offers a Health Scholarship Program, supported by the March of Dimes. The purpose of the program is to give financial aid to persons preparing for careers in the health professions of nursing, occupational therapy, physical therapy, medical social work, and medicine. The scholarships are four-year awards, renewable annually, and pay $500 a year or a total of $2,000. Approximately 500 scholarships are offered each year and are apportioned geographically.

Information on the program may be found in the National Foundation's 1961 Fact Sheet which outlines the purpose of the program, availability and distribution of the awards, selection procedures, obligations of recipients, eligibility requirements, and use of funds. The deadline for the filing of applications is April 1, 1961.

The 1961 Fact Sheet and application information is available from local National Foundation chapters or from National Foundation Health Scholarships, 800 Second Avenue, New York 17, New York.

Problems of Rural and Urban Southern Negro Children

PAUL M. SMITH, Jr.

If guidance personnel are to assist youth with the development of their personal and social adjustment, it becomes necessary to be cognizant of the problems of young people regardless of the conditions that surround their group or community circumstances. The purpose of this investigation was to determine the difference between problems of rural and urban Negro adolescents living in the South. This study is based on the null hypothesis that the number of problems which bother students living in a rural community will be the same number as those for youth residing in an urban area.

Procedure

The students chosen for study consisted of 150 enrolled in the 11th and 12th grades of a rural and an urban high school in North Carolina during the spring of 1957. These students were selected at random. The rural school was located in a town about 25 miles from the capital city of the state. It had a population of approximately 1,378. The urban school was located in Raleigh which had a population of 66,679.

In addition to determining area of residence by the United States Bureau of the Census definition (Urban: incorporated places of 2,500 or more persons; Rural: incorporated or unincorporated places of less than 2,500 persons), it was hypothesized that an individual who had spent the first 10 years of his life in a given community had acquired the general characteristics, habits, and customs of that particular area. This was believed to be essential because of the mobility of the population, the increasing influence of communication media, and the complexities and confusion among authorities determining when a person is a rural resident and when urban. This study, therefore, was limited to those students who had lived the first 10 years of life in their respective communities.

The Mooney Problem Checklist, high school form, 1950 revision, was used to collect a census of students' problems. This checklist requires about 50 minutes for students to respond to the 330 items which are divided into 11 areas: (1) health and physical development (HPD); (2) finances, living conditions, and employment (FLE); (3) social and recreational activities (SRA); (4) social-psychological relations (SPR); (5) personal-psychological relations (PPR); (6) courtship, sex, and marriage (CSM); (7) home and family (HF); (8) morals and religion (MR); (9) adjustment to school work (ASW); (10) curriculum and teaching procedures (CTP); and (11) the future: vocational and educational (FVE). This instrument is limited by the student's awareness of his problems and his willingness to reveal them.

The data were analyzed by counting the number of items checked in each area and ranking each according to frequency. The *t*-ratio was used to test the significance of difference between group means.

Results

Summarized in Table 1 is the comparison of rural and urban Negro youth's problems of concern.

The pattern of problems concerning the two groups were different and alike in many ways. The three problems that were of major concern to rural youth were (1) finances, living conditions, and employment; (2) adjustment to school work; and

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TABLE 1

Rural and Urban Negro Students' Responses According to Problem Areas

Problem area	Rural *No.*	*%*	*Rank*	Urban *No.*	*%*	*Rank*
HPD	139	9	6	447	8	6
FLE	182	12	1	534	10	4
SRA	125	8	8	444	8	8
CSM	148	9	4.5	511	10	5
SPR	122	8	9	418	8	10
PPR	148	9	4.5	555	10	3
MR	118	8	10	445	8	7
HF	133	8	7	353	7	11
FVE	157	10	3	437	8	9
ASW	169	11	2	661	12	1
CTP	117	8	11	621	11	2
Total	1,558	100		5,426	100	
Mean	33.15			52.68		
S.D.	21.52			29.05		
t			4.60*			

* Significant at the 0.01 level.

(3) the future: vocational and educational. Among urban students the important problems were (1) adjustment to school work; (2) curriculum and teaching procedures; and (3) personal-psychological relations. The problems of rural students seemed to be more of a personal nature and the problems of urban appeared to be those closely related to academic matters.

The problems which seemed to be least disturbing to rural children were (1) curriculum and teaching procedure; (2) morals and religion; and (3) social-psychological relations. Urban youth were concerned least with problems of (1) home and family; (2) social-psychological relations; and (3) the future: vocational and educational. Both groups were in agreement that social-psychological relations were among their least troubling problems.

Rural students had on the average 33.15 problems, while urban adolescents had 52.68 problems on the average. When the *t*-ratio was computed for significance of the difference between group means, it was found to be 4.60 which was clearly beyond the 0.01 confidence level. Therefore rural students reported far fewer problems than urban students and thus the null hypothesis could not be accepted.

From the evidence, it appeared that the type of community in which these youth resided was a determining factor with respect to the number of problems of which they were aware. The data further suggested that the nature of the problems which seemed most and least important to the individual was to some degree influenced by the rural or urban way of life.

NEW PAMPHLET SHOWS PLACE OF MUSIC IN POST-SCHOOL LIFE

After Graduation—What About Your Music?, a six-page pamphlet prepared by the American Music Conference, is designed to inform high school students of the musical activities available in college, community, business, and family life. The pamphlet is available at 100 copies for $1.00 from American Music Conference, 332 Michigan Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois. (Review copies are free.)

Letters

from our readers

On a Freshman Tutoring Service

To the Editor:

Freshmen often drop out of college because of a low academic record; however, if they can apply for tutoring early in the semester, they can often prevent this loss of wasted man hours as well as dignity and prestige. The Phi Eta Sigma Fraternity, the freshman honor society, sponsors a tutoring program for freshman in need of academic help—an excellent resource for guidance counselors.

The purpose of Phi Eta Sigma is to encourage and reward high scholastic attainment among the new members of the freshman class. Eligibility for membership is based solely on scholarship; during his first semester the freshman must attain a point average of 3.5, or B+.

Since 1952, Phi Eta Sigma gives all freshman during orientation a pamphlet entitled "Hints on How to Study," which includes suggestions for planning work, reading efficiently, concentrating, note taking, theme writing, and budgeting time.

Its tutoring service to freshman and sophomores started in 1953. The applicant learns about service through the notices posted on the bulletin boards, the announcements made in the Principles of Engineering classes and in the Freshman Council meetings, and the write-ups in the college newspaper. In addition, the applicant's advisor has special forms which the student may use to request tutoring.

Application to Phi Eta Sigma for Tutoring

Your Name ______________________
Last First

Your Section ______________________

Subjects in which you would like to receive tutoring:

____

____

Day (s) and time (s) when you would be available:

Through the student mail please send this blank, when filled out, to the Tutoring Chairman, and then check the Student Mail for a prompt reply.
Note! Tutoring is free of charge.

Each Phi Eta Sigma member indicates the choice of subject which he wishes to tutor and designates his free hours during the week. To apply for tutoring, the student informs the chairman of his needs, and the latter selects a tutor who will continue instructing the subject until the tutor feels that the student has adequate knowledge of the subject matter. The tutoring takes place in an assigned room for approximately one hour. Each tutor employs his own method of tutoring but stresses the techniques of problem solving and of planning the applicant's schedule.

During the year the fraternity tutored 90 students. The most frequently requested subjects are physics, chemistry, and mathematics, in that order.

Phi Eta Sigma believes that the progress made by the tutored student is the best index of the effectiveness of the tutoring service. When questioned by the advisors concerning the value of the tutoring service, the freshman who were tutored made the following comments:

> I sat in physics class and was in a fog until I was tutored by Phi Eta Sigma. Now I feel that I am making progress in physics.
>
> Because I spent a year in service right after graduation from high school, I was weak in math. After my tutor reviewed me in this subject, I made passing grades.
>
> I was doing poorly in math and physics because I did not know how to study. The tutor from Phi Eta Sigma showed me how to plan my homework and budget my time. I am doing well now!
>
> Failure in physics! Failure in math! I was ready to withdraw from college, but somehow I knew that I could do better. I requested tutoring in both subjects and suddenly I was successful—thanks to Phi Eta Sigma.

HERMAN A. ESTRIN
Professor of English
Newark College of Engineering
Newark, New Jersey

A Salute to Journal Terminology

To the Editor:

Recently there has been much objection to the high-flown words and phrases so commonly used nowadays to express simple ideas. Just last night, in writing a complimentary letter to a newly appointed editor friend about the current issue of his professional society's magazine, I ventured to include one gripe. A contributor had written "When . . . the correct methodology is employed to achieve these objectives." I complained that my old friends in marketing research "were probably the first to glorify good old 'method' (a way of doing something) into 'methodology,' which if it is anything, is a study or science of methods. We do not employ a methodology. We employ a method."

Thus conditioned for battle, I picked up your December issue this morning and there in the contents, the first article thrust "Rehabilitation Potential" at me. The second article really made me jump with "Methodological Problems."

Now, "potential" is one of those things. To the

best of my belief, it was the physicists that first used it substantively, and perhaps it was justifiable. But I do not like to hear the adjective and the noun interchanged, as when the potential market becomes "the market potential," in a stuffy effort to be away up there. "Potential" is too useful an adjective to be so kicked around.

But as I mentally toyed with "Quantitative Measurement of Potential Progress in the Screening of Rehabilitation Candidates" as a possible improvement and considered "Potential Capacity," etc., etc., I was forced to the conclusion that here was a case where the substantive use was at least justifiable and perhaps the best thing to be done.

Next I tackled "Methodological Problems in Evaluation." Of course I was stymied by the obvious fact that the article is a methodological study. Even better, a scanning of the article showed a dozen chances for the contributor to call method "methodology," and there was not a slip showing.

My compliments, Mr. Editor, to you and your contributors.

George T. Street, Jr.
Veterans Administration (Retired)
Lansdowne, Pennsylvania

College and the Physically Handicapped

To the Editor:

Congratulations to the University of Missouri for its plan to modify university facilities in order to accommodate severely handicapped students. Under a grant from the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation of the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, the university will provide a regional facility for disabled students in which services will be organized and the campus modified so as to be accessible to them.

This plan exemplifies the American democratic ideal of equal educational opportunities for all, in providing that physically handicapped students need not be intellectually handicapped. In a master's thesis undertaken by this writer, it was concluded that physically handicapped students in four Bay Area colleges were more deterred from pursuing higher education because ramps and elevators were lacking, than through any inability on their part to meet the intellectual and emotional demands of an appropriate academic curriculum.

Currently, two main trends in the American social scheme should lend impetus to other institutions to follow the example of the University of Missouri, as well as many other colleges, in setting up facilities and services for physically handicapped students. First of these is the increased emphasis placed on the value of a college education for any individual. A recent estimate of the economic benefits attributable to having been graduated from college is given as $100,000 in additional lifetime earnings. It seems reasonable to assume that for disabled persons, the disparity between what could be earned with and without a college degree is even greater, since many avenues of employment would be closed to them. Furthermore, in the rehabilitation of the physically handicapped, it is essential to determine the client's intellectual potential and utilize it vocationally, for in many cases there is a correlation between jobs requiring mental skills and jobs that are sufficiently sedentary for those whose mobility is limited.

The second trend in contemporary American life is the increasing emphasis given to vocational rehabilitation as a result of recent legislation on behalf of the physically handicapped, notably Public Law 565, enacted in 1954 by the Congress of the United States. This legislation enables the state rehabilitation services to underwrite in part the cost of a college education for clients who require college training as part of an approved vocational plan. Also provided by Public Law 565 are such demonstration projects as the one University of Missouri has undertaken, which can contribute solutions to problems in rehabilitation.

The American Personnel and Guidance Association has indicated concern for the physically handicapped student in conducting, as part of its 1959 convention, a symposium entitled "A Rational for Handling the Handicapped on a College Campus" and by the publication of articles in its *Personnel and Guidance Journal*. Through the continued efforts of rehabilitation workers and college personnel workers, the day need not be far off when no student possessing the necessary intellectual potential for it, need be denied a college education because he is physically handicapped.

Elaine Morgan, M.S., 1960
In Rehabilitation Counseling
San Francisco State College

Books Reviewed

reviews of recent publications . . . by various contributors

Procedures and Preparation for Counseling, by Wm. C. Cottle & N. M. Downie. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1960. 319 pp. $8.00, trade; $6.00, classroom.

Counseling, in this book, is delimited to the service rendered to any individual "within the normal range of behavior" who needs some assistance in his efforts to reach attainable goals. To render this service most effectively, the authors maintain that the counselor must know where to obtain, how to organize, and how to evaluate pertinent information about the client. Emphasis in this book is on the ways in which information can be gathered and how this information can be used in preparation for the counseling process. This is not a book on counseling techniques, nor on counseling theory, but one in which stress is placed on how the counselor can become an informed, active—but not directive—participant in the counseling process.

The reader has the impression that this book was designed as a text to accompany a practicum course in pre-college and college-level counseling. The teaching experience of the authors is reflected in the sequence, organization, documentation, comprehensiveness, and unbiased presentation of the material. The literature of the past three decades and the historical antecedents have been culled and integrated in an easily readable style. (Charts and graphs, which occasionally cut into the trend of thought in the text, might have been relegated to an appendix.) Not only the graduate student at the practicum level, but other professionals who need to obtain information about their clients, can glean and absorb the numerous, succinctly evaluated tools and techniques. About one-third of the book (four chapters) is devoted to the type of data obtainable from psychological tests; two chapters deal with basic elements and applications of statistics; the balance of the book emphasizes—among other tools—personal documents, anecdotal records, observations in the initial interview, inferences from the case study, and research and follow-up of counseling.

The major contribution of this book is in bringing to the attention of the counselor trainees sources of information, other than from psychological tests, which contribute to the explanation of a client's abilities, needs, and goals. Also worthy of note is the emphasis on the counselor's obligation to become involved in research and in follow-up of counseling effectiveness.

To the beginning counselor, the broadness of scope of information resources and the data-gathering processes might prove so encompassing that little time might be left for considering the counseling process itself. After all, it is the utilization of the information in the counseling process which is of most importance. The authors do allude to differences of opinion, in the field, regarding the selection, use, and application of the tools and techniques. This is done so subtly that it seems hardly likely that the beginning counselor would even pause in his pursuit of information gathering to consider these differences. By the time he has reached the practicum level, a counselor trainee will appreciate a summarization of materials from courses completed, but needs guidance in discriminating which tools and techniques to use and when to use them: time and agency budgets, as well as demands for service, impose limits on the number of tools and techniques a counselor can use. More emphasis on case study material is also urged.

It is probably becoming obvious that this reviewer is suggesting the need for a companion volume which will deal with the discriminative selection and procedures in utilizing the data obtained from the tools and techniques described in this book. The authors seem fully qualified to carry on the good work.—I. Linnick, *Chief Psychologist, Federation Employment and Guidance Service, New York City.*

Readings in Rehabilitation Counseling, edited by C. H. Patterson. Champaign, Ill.: Stipes Publishing Company, 1960. 324 pp. $5.25.

DR. PATTERSON has brought together journal and other articles which he thought would be useful to the student and counselor in developing a theory and practice of rehabilitation counseling. His intent was to provide a supplementary text for graduate courses in rehabilitation counseling, for use in orientation institutes or in-service training of rehabilitation counselors, and for counselors in the field. Within the framework that he has set for himself he has done an excellent job.

Four criteria were used in selecting articles: (1) Its value in stimulating the thinking of the student or practitioner by presenting an idea, an issue, a point of view, or approach to some aspect of the rehabilitation counseling process broadly conceived. (2) It did not deal with medical information or medical aspects of disability, the social or psychological aspects of disability, technical problems in testing and evaluation of the disabled, or occupational information in rehabilitation counseling. (3) It was not concerned with specific disabilities or disability areas and the special problems of counseling clients with specific disabilities. (4) The selections were limited with few exceptions to journal articles. With these criteria as guideposts Dr. Patterson has organized a series of 64 papers in 10 sections which cover the following major topical areas: philosophy and background of rehabilitation; the role of the rehabilitation counselor; the training of the rehabilitation counselor; basic principles of rehabilitation counseling; the counseling process; special evaluating procedures; placement in employment; rehabilitation centers and sheltered workshops; contributions of related professions; integration of services. In addition, he prefaces each section with a discussion which gives perspective to the papers which follow and frequently includes an added bibliography for the interested reader.

Approximately 50 per cent of the articles were originally published in the *Journal of Rehabilitation*. *The Personnel and Guidance Journal* is represented by seven articles while papers from 13 other journals plus several unpublished papers complete the compendium.

As the editor anticipated, it is impossible to organize a book of readings which would satisfy the interests and points of view of most readers on all counts. With no intent

to quibble, it seems to this reviewer that the readings might have included somewhat less material on the prevocational activities area and more material on the limitations and problems associated with using standardized psychological tests in evaluating the client with a disability. The topic, the role of the rehabilitation counselor, is dealt with not only in the section devoted to it but in several papers which appear in other sections. The section which presents papers on the contribution of related professions includes three papers discussing the work of the psychologist in rehabilitation settings while at the same time it has only a single article on the medical profession and that describes the role of the psychiatrist. In addition, it includes nothing about the contributions of occupational therapists, physical therapists, or speech pathologists to the rehabilitation field.

There is implicit in the title the notion that this volume presents a representative coverage of the field and will convey to the reader an image of the profession. Although the editor has carefully described the boundaries of the set of readings, it is my opinion that his decision to eliminate research articles from consideration is the book's most serious fault. On the one hand, it presents to the reader a picture of a profession which seems to have little empirical base for its activities and in addition seems to be little concerned about this state of affairs. It seems to me that the inclusion of research papers available in various topical areas would have enhanced the value of the readings considerably. It would also have contributed toward some sense of what research has contributed to the field and, at the same time, suggest the substantial needs for further research in the field of rehabilitation counseling. It appears that holding to the nonresearch criteria was difficult since there are at least three articles in the book which present systematic data.

Dr. Patterson has achieved the goal that he set for himself in a commendable fashion. His book of readings will be of value to the groups for which he prepared it. It includes much required reading for people now entering the field of rehabilitation counseling and, therefore, is a text in the basic course in rehabilitation counseling which I teach.—JOHN E. MUTHARD, *Associate Professor of Education and Coordinator, Rehabilitation Counseling Program, State University of Iowa.*

THERAPEUTIC PSYCHOLOGY: FUNDAMENTALS OF COUNSELING AND PSYCHOTHERAPY, by Lawrence M. Brammer & Everett L. Shostrom. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. 447 pp. $6.95.

THIS BOOK is presented as "a thorough introduction to the field of counseling and psychotherapy" for the "upper division and graduate student," and as, for the practitioner, a means of re-examining his techniques and assumptions. It is concerned successively with a survey of theories of personality development and theories of counseling and therapy, with process and techniques, and with special areas of application.

The language is unfailingly clear and simple. Every chapter is previewed and summarized and organized under an abundance of subheadings. Every important point is illustrated with a counselor-client

interchange, a quotation from another author, or a list of examples. (There is only one complete transcript however and that a brief one.)

The book comprises an impressively complete catalogue of all the issues that concern counseling psychologists today. The authors are usually quite explicit in stating which viewpoints they endorse, and their endorsements tend to be on the side of practical common sense with which one can find little to quarrel. They represent an eclecticism whose range covers everything that could even remotely be called counseling or psychotherapy, and whose mean seems to fall a bit to the existential side of client-centeredness.

This represents a considerable shift from their position in their 1952 book, *The Dynamics of the Counseling Process;* a shift toward seeing counseling more as a therapeutic task and toward giving more consideration to psychoanalytic theories of therapy. The index of the earlier book contains two references to Freud, the present one 11. The earlier one does not list "interpretation" at all; the present one lists it 16 times, in fact, has a whole chapter devoted to it. Whether this shift is good or bad, too large or too small, depends upon its coincidence with the reader's convictions.

Obviously when one includes within the confines of a single book such a multitude of items the price of completeness has to be brevity, often superficiality. It is clear that the superficiality in their case is usually in the presentation, not in the thinking that has preceded it. The book's greatest virtues, as well as its worst faults, are those of eclecticism and "cook-bookery." The authors so skillfully render the best of everybody else that there is little room left for their own original contributions. In fact, their contribution is one of digesting, organizing, and weighing, not of creation or penetration.

Particularly cogent is their chapter on interpretation techniques where, for example, they elaborate the point that reflection, when it is anything but role repetition of *every* client utterance, is, by virtue of its selectivity, interpretation. It is also pleasing to hear them emphasize that it is not how well the client can verbalize his insights

but what he does about them that counts. Their views regarding professional ethics, both in the section devoted to this matter and as reflected in their comments throughout the book, are both reasonable and impeccable.

There are chapters devoted to five special areas of application: marriage counseling; child therapy and counseling of parents; educational, vocational, and rehabilitation counseling; religious counseling; and industrial counseling. Of these, marriage counseling receives perhaps the most adequate treatment in proportion to the available material, educational counseling the least. Although there is a bow to the notion that learning difficulties and educational failures may be primary symptoms of neurotic conflict in students and treated as such, one could as easily gather that the first thing to consider is a prescription for new eye glasses, and if that fails, "remediation."

To me the most dangerous aspect of the book is that which Meehl most admires in his preface: the frequent offering of lists of signs to recognize, ways to say things, and tricks of the trade. The *reductio ad absurdum* is the suggestion that one may hint to a reluctant client that the hour is up by putting one's hands on one's knees and leaning forward, but that it wouldn't do to shuffle the papers on one's desk.

Meehl applauds in particular a checklist of signs of countertransference; it is indeed accurate and vivid. I fear, however, that to the relatively inexperienced this list and the subsequent three pages on "resolving countertransference" could convey an impression of the ease and simplicity with which these matters can be handled which does not correspond with rude and recalcitrant reality. It is suggested that counselors grow with experience, that it sometimes helps to talk over one's countertransference feelings with the client, or that one can send the client off to talk about it with the group. The possible use of supervision is dismissed in a paragraph and the idea of personal therapy for the counselor in a single sentence. By a similarly hyper-rational treatment of many issues (and without committing any factual inaccuracies with which one can disagree) there is accomplished a belittlement of the power of the unconscious

and a representation of therapy as relatively simple and painless to either participant. Perhaps there really is a psychiatrist like their hypothetical one whose phone number is Pleasant 5554, but I doubt it.

It is certainly true that counseling as something distinct from psychotherapy has been able to join the recent tide in psychology and psychiatry that concentrates on the ego functions and the efficacy of conscious motives. Consequently this book presents an accurate reflection of what is going on in the field. How well that corresponds with the reality of human nature is a matter for the future to decide.—BARBARA NACHMANN, *Assistant Chief, Bureau of Psychological Services, University of Michigan.*

TEST CONSTRUCTION: DEVELOPMENT AND INTERPRETATION OF ACHIEVEMENT TESTS, by Dorothy Adkins Wood. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1960. vi + 134 pp. $3.50.

THE COUNSELOR needing a simple, succinct review of the principles involved in test construction will find this text highly useful. It not only presents in easy, readable style the information a counselor might want to know about tests, but it also provides a worthwhile source of information about the construction of classroom tests to which a counselor may wish to refer teachers with whom he works. It is the sort of book that can be read in an evening, but the material in it will bear considerable re-reading.

Topics covered are the principles of psychological measurement; kinds of objective test items, their purpose and how to analyze them; statistics involved in using test scores; and a chapter discussing essay tests. There are three appendixes containing examples of objective test items in most of the common subject-matter areas found in our educational system. The 48 selected references are adequate, but include only 6 texts published after 1956. The indexes of authors' names and of subjects covered are brief, but adequate.

The above paragraphs indicate why the counselor using tests and test scores will find Wood's book a time-saving review. It presents the information in a fashion that is easy to understand as well as easy to read so that he and his teaching colleagues have a handy reference.

With increasing school and college enrollment, teachers will need to change their examinations so that such examinations provide maximum valid information about student progress involving as limited amounts of teacher time and subjective judgment as possible. In order to cross-validate the results of teacher-made examinations, the teacher and the counselor will want to use effective, standardized achievement tests. The material covered in Wood's book not only shows the teacher how to construct more valid classroom examinations, but what the important considerations should be in choosing achievement tests as a check upon these examinations. Whether the teacher is new to the field or a veteran of many classroom experiences, this book will bear reading to highlight the test characteristics that must be identified for useful student evaluation. It should be in the faculty libraries of every educational institution.—WM. C. COTTLE, *Professor of Education, The University of Kansas.*

CAREERS IN EDUCATION, by Richard Wynn. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960. 307 pp. $6.75.

THE AUTHOR has attempted to give young people a clear, concise, unbiased description of work opportunities in the field of education. However, he recognizes that his own "lusty enthusiasm" for teaching may have colored to some extent his presentation. In the opinion of this reviewer, he has achieved a happy balance between over-enthusiasm and cold, factual information about educational work in our society. *Careers in Education* is a frank description of both the satisfactions and the frustrations of the profession. It paints for the reader a picture of education as a profession, without falling into the trap of appearing too enthusiastic or over sentimental.

The book should be of interest to both high school and college students who wish to explore the educational field as a possible choice for a life's work. Also, it will be helpful to counselors, parents, and various semi-professional groups interested in learn-

ing more about what education has to offer as a career to young people.

An historical orientation is given through a brief, well-written chapter on our educational heritage. The chapter ends with a well-selected list of books, periodicals, and films for those who wish to probe deeper this avenue of approach toward a better understanding of the profession. Also, for background information, there is a short chapter on forces and issues affecting American education. Perhaps, at this point, the author has attempted the impossible. Forces and issues relating to education in our society are too complex to be considered in a short summary discussion. Again, however, those who wish to gain more information will find the citations at the end of the chapter most helpful.

The question of salaries in education is discussed. More often we fall into the trap of comparing the top salaries in other professions with the lowest or beginning salaries in education. Information concerning variations in salaries in different parts of the country and in different areas of educational work is given. Salaries of teachers are compared with those of other professional groups. The relationship of salaries to levels of professional preparation and years of experience is discussed in a way that will be helpful to the young readers. Also, issues relating to salaries, such as merit ratings *vs.* single salary schedules, are mentioned.

Varied opportunities in education are explored. Here the reader can visualize the many aspects and ramifications of American education, with respect to a wide variety of job opportunities in many different settings. Various positions in public and private school education are discussed, as well as positions in higher education, state departments of education, the federal government, and private organizations.

"Let's Talk About You," "Preparing for Teaching," and "Making the Most of the Years Ahead" are chapter headings for the last third of the book. Here the author focuses attention of the reader on himself and guides him in an analysis of his own feelings toward a career in education as a life's work.

For factual information, the book contains a number of excellent charts, graphs, and tables. Also, eye-catching pictures throughout the book will attract the attention of the young reader. Quotations about teaching and education as a profession are given; these tend to give a personal touch to the book which increases its readability.

The author has made a significant contribution to a better understanding of career opportunities in education for American youth.—ROBERT O. STRIPLING, *Professor of Education, University of Florida.*

PSYCHOLOGY FOR EFFECTIVE TEACHING, by George J. Mouly. New York: Henry Holt, 1960. 550 pp. $5.50.

IN THE PREFACE of this book the author mentions the "need for giving teachers a better understanding of the 'why' of human behavior." If this is an objective of the book, it is realized in a most admirable manner. This reviewer was impressed by the names of the 18 chapters as being very much the make-up of "psychology for effective teaching," and the contents of every chapter are excellent. Unlike most authors who write books on psychology for teachers, Mouly writes as if he actually understood the inside of a classroom. His writing is pithy and down-to-earth; it is simple and factual, with interesting reports of research and studies. His numerous examples will make sense to teachers. If student teachers can learn about learning from the written word, then they should learn from this book.

All of the chapters are good, but the ones that most impressed this reviewer were Chapter 5 (Emotional Development), with a most realistic and refreshing discussion of the self-centeredness of love; Chapters 8, 9, and 10 (General Nature of Learning; Guiding the Learning Process; Motivation), with an unusually intelligible discussion of learning; Chapter 14 (Measuring Academic Achievement), with a seldom seen stress on the learning aspects of measurement; and Chapter 18 (The Modern Classroom—A Psychological Reorientation), with an excellent summation of the book, as well as the author's very solid philosophy of the psychology of learning.

This reviewer may have developed a halo effect after reading the first few chapters, so that any criticisms are of a minor nature. In Chapter 1 (Psychology and the Teacher), the author would seem to be confusing Russian and American satellites (p. 8)! In

the same chapter (p. 15) we may question the implication that the importance of "proficiency in teaching," can be determined by asking children if they think that proficiency in teaching is important—Paul Witty not withstanding! In Chapter 2 (The Determinants of Behavior), this reviewer would question the statement that "Nondirective counseling is based on the premise that adjustment has been secured when the client recognizes the inconsistent ideas, accepts them on his own, and integrates them" (p. 51). In Chapter 6 (Social Development), the section on sociometric techniques seems a bit out of place. In Chapter 7 (Intellectual Development), the indication that two per cent of the population has an IQ above 125 and the statement that an IQ of 130 is average for graduates of a good college (pp. 199–202) will, if true, be very bad news for many thousands of American mothers who have high ambitions for their dear children! In Chapter 13 (Attitudes), we may question the extent to which "character" will be developed by a "study of the dynamics of the Brutuses, Cassiuses, and Macbeths . . . of the strength of character of the Columbuses, the Nelsons, and the Edith Cavells," (p. 355) although we would hasten to agree with Mouly that this is at least better than a study of "metaphors" and "1492's"!

In Chapter 17 (Mental Health in the Classroom), the author unfortunately encourages the fallacy that guidance services are not needed in the elementary school when he says ". . . in the elementary school, where the mental health activities are integrated with the total program . . ." (p. 464). They could be, but more often they are not. The other chapters that complete the book are titled: Growth and Development; Physical and Motor Development; Retention and Transfer of Training; The Higher Mental Processes; Individual Differences; and Personal and Social Adjustment.

This is an excellent book, and it should

rank among the best in the field. It may help some student teachers to become real teachers, rather than pedestrian workers—the fate that awaits so many of them!—DUGALD S. ARBUCKLE, *Professor of Education, Boston University.*

GENERAL EDUCATION FOR PERSONAL MATURITY, edited by Horace T. Morse & Paul L. Dressel. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1960. 244 pp. $4.50.

THIS VOLUME is a compilation of articles describing general education courses in selected colleges and universities. Each has been written by a different author who has had first hand experience in organizing or conducting the course described.

The 17 chapters are divided into three sections. The first section, edited by Melvene D. Hardee and Orrin B. Powell, describes courses in the area of personal and social adjustment given at Columbia College, San Francisco State College, Moorhead State College, and Boston University. The second section, edited by Henry Bowman, describes courses in marriage and family living given at the University of Minnesota, San Francisco State College, University of California at Berkeley, the Merrill-Palmer School, and the University of Utah. The third section, edited by Henry Borow, describes vocational planning courses given at Contra Costa College, Texas A & M College, Fairleigh Dickinson University, and the University of Minnesota.

The editors of each section have written valuable summary chapters reviewing general developments in their respective fields. In addition Russell M. Cooper has contributed an important introductory chapter entitled, "General Education for Personal Maturity: A Balance Sheet." The two general chapters and the section summary chapters are of particular value in integrating the descriptions of individual courses at specific institutions into a unified volume and by providing bases for drawing generalizations. Morse's final chapter summarizes contrasting points of view regarding adjustment courses, their departmental affiliations, content, typical teaching and evaluation methods, and problems currently facing them.

Practically all of the authors emphasize the dynamic nature of the movement to provide adjustment courses and the ever-changing content and arrangement of the courses themselves. Cooper describes the book as a symposium presenting a record of significant activity and achievement rather than a primarily historical document. He describes the movement itself as one "based on the conviction that the complex affairs of personal living can and must be subjected to the same kind of systematic study and illumination as is now given to government, business, and other established subjects of the curriculum."

Morse, in his concluding chapter, forcefully refutes the criticism that adjustment courses or even the emphasis upon adjustment leads to conformity and mediocrity. He further emphasizes that efforts made to improve and facilitate adjustment are directed towards nurturing a process rather than toward the achievement of a preconceived norm. He says, "Our aim, in short, is the development of the *adjusting* individual rather than the *adjusted* one." The point of view of the many authors might well be summarized by the statement that properly conceived and directed courses can give the individual "a method of analysis, a knowledge of available resources, and a determination to face even complex personal problems rationally and objectively."

The specific purpose of the book was to provide a theoretical overview of the adjustment course concept as well as concrete descriptions of college courses in actual operation. It was directed to institutions, committees, and individuals concerned with developing courses in personal adjustment, family living, and vocational planning. By presenting the major aspects and issues in the field, the editors hope that the book will provide a basis for further experimentation and growth in the area. It fulfills its purpose remarkably well and will be a valuable resource for its intended readers.

It has two serious shortcomings. It contains neither an index nor a general bibliography. Both of these features would have made it more valuable. Most of the chapter authors have footnoted many of their points but these valuable references are unavailable in any systematic listing.—ROBERT H. SHAFFER, *Dean of Students, Indiana University.*

Publications . . . in brief

THOMAS M. MAGOON

Regulations of Private Employment Agencies

State Laws Regulating Private Employment Agencies. Bulletin No. 209, 1960. Bureau of Labor Standards, Department of Labor, Washington 25, D. C. 124 pp. Free.

This Bureau of Labor Standards Bulletin provides valuable and otherwise difficult-to-find information about the regulatory laws governing private employment agencies. This is the new revision of a 17-year-old bulletin first published by the Bureau in 1943.

The contents include a description of the major provisions of regulatory laws (coverage, licenses and bonds, fees, prohibited practices, posting, records and reports, administrative authority, and penalties for violations). The second section on growth of agencies reveals a 250 per cent increase over an 18-year period for the 18 states reporting data for the two periods. Similarly, census data are reported showing an increase in 10 years of 75 per cent in numbers of agencies and of over 225 per cent in gross fees collected (over $100,000,000 in 1958 alone).

The remainder of the bulletin provides a state-by-state description of the regulatory laws. The reader would be particularly interested in learning that all states have such laws except Alabama, Mississippi, New Mexico, North Dakota, South Carolina, and Vermont.

Report on Armed Forces Psychiatry

Preventive Psychiatry in the Armed Forces: With Some Implications for Civilian Use, 1960. Report No. 47. Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, 104 East 25th St., New York 10, N. Y. 48 pp. $.75.

One particular value of this report, one of many published by the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, is the historical account provided of preventive psychiatry in the Armed Forces, its methodology and description of trends over time in the incidence of admission rates, disability separations, and performance quality of treated individuals.

The contents indicate sections on definition, history, factors affecting military effectiveness, methodology, evaluation, research proposals, and application of military psychiatry to non-military groups.

In general, the document is a readable and sound report. Its weaknesses are threefold. (1) Research needs have been given relatively little attention beyond recommendations that more should be done that would enhance understanding of human behavior. (2) There is a rather notable connotation of prevention as meaning modification, lessening, or elimination of disabilities as opposed to a more asset-oriented approach designed to reinforce individual human potentialities-in-the-situation. (3) Finally, the report suffers in its discussion of non-military applications by the unfortunate intrusion of such straw-man targets as misuse of aptitude testing and the use of such a phrase as "other forms of psychological magic."

In total, however, the report is a good one and offers some stimulating questions as to the degree to which the military psychiatric model procedures may be transferred into civilian business, industrial, and educational organizational life.

Periodicals for the Blind

Periodicals of Special Interest to Blind Persons, 1960. American Foundation for the Blind, West 16th St., New York 11, N.Y. 41 pp. $.15.

This new edition of periodicals for blind persons supplements the materials provided by the federal government through the Library of Congress. The contents include U. S. publications in (a) inkprint (general, professional, school alumni, and agency periodicals), (b) braille (general, religious, current events, schools, alumni, agency, and deaf-blind periodicals), (c) moon, (d) New York Point, and (e) talking book forms. The small number of periodicals published in Canada in inkprint and in braille are also listed. Each publication is followed by its publisher, editor, embosser, and brief annotation as to type of publication, its cost, and size.

Journal readers might be interested to know that in the United States there are 14 such periodicals published in talking book form and 112 in braille.

College Women in New York City

Futures for College Women in New York, 1960, Vol. 1, No. 1. Alumnae Advisory Center, Inc., 541 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y. 56 pp. $1.00.

This new publication inaugurates the second decade of operation of the Alumnae Advisory Center, an organization which guides ". . . . college women through their vocational goals in New York City . . . through forums, individual counseling, publications, a job library, and long-term liaison with employers."

The contents are a veritable smorgasbord of information of relevance to the young (or not so young) college-trained female. There are several general articles pertaining to women in the world of work. These include Sara Blanding's "New

Patterns in Women's Lives," and Alice Leopold's "Trends in Opportunities and Requirements." There are sections providing salary conversion charts, typical deductions and benefits, their explanation and effect, a partial listing of New York recruiters, jobs requiring only an A.B. and no further training, places to stay, and a description of employment agencies' purposes, services, and costs.

This reviewer would hesitate to guess how many females would make use of such material annually, but for the person with New York employment in mind, this publication should be extremely helpful.

Dr. Conant Evaluates the Junior High School

Education In the Junior High School Years—Some Recommendations, by James B. Conant, 1960. Distributed by Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J. 46 pp. $.50.

Hardly a *Journal* reader could have missed the many and varied appraisers of our public education scene from Admiral Rickover on up (or down depending upon the reader's particular point of view). Dr. Conant's present report, his second, focuses upon junior high school level education. It is addressed by his subtitle as a memorandum to school boards. What is reported is the result of visits to 237 schools in 90 school systems in 23 states.

The first fourth of the report deals with principal findings, the relatively unique characteristics of the seventh–ninth grade pupils and teachers, and the relationship between school boards and the professional staff of educational institutions. The last point is briefly but quite clearly treated, in this section, although the distinctions as to areas of responsibility seem a little less clear in the next section on recommendations. This may arise from the fact that the reader can easily read his own biases into the distinctions. Upon second reading, the distinctions, while clear, seem unduly restrictive. In other words, it seems to this reviewer quite debatable whether the perogatives of the school system's staff should be delimited to recommendations for staff appointments, judgments of teaching quality, and the details of course content and textbook choice.

The recommendations form the bulk of the report and also are clear in their intent. They cover a range of topics from the nature of required subject matter in different grades, intergrade articulation, class scheduling, staffing, to guidance and testing, and the like. Readers would be particularly interested in the guidance and testing section where Dr. Conant again applies the ratio of one full-time specialist or the equivalent for every 250–300 pupils in grades 7 and 8, as well as for grades 9–12. Not all readers will probably share the author's lack of enthusiasm for regular group guidance courses.

In short, a highly readable document reflecting those characteristics in junior high school level education which the author's observations evaluate as most notable.

CARL McDANIELS, EDITOR

The Branches in Highlight

Northern California Guidance Association

THE NORTHERN CALIFORNIA GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION is probably unique in that as the organization has grown its geographic territory has shrunk. The California Vocational Guidance Association received its charter from NVGA in 1921, at which time it encompassed approximately the northern two-thirds of California. In 1934, it reorganized and changed its name. As membership grew in various regional areas, NCGA assisted these areas in forming their own organization and in seceding from the parent. There have been three offsprings—Northeastern California Guidance Association, San Joaquin Valley Guidance Association, and the most recently formed, the Sacramento Area Personnel and Guidance Association. In the past, whenever membership grew beyond 600, the Association subdivided. At the close of the last fiscal year, NCGA had again passed this figure, but there are no plans for further subdivision. NCGA now includes only the area surrounding the San Francisco Bay and a few counties to the north and to the south. In 1956, the Association was granted a charter from APGA.

Three times a year, October, January or February, and April, all-day conferences are held. These are scheduled for Saturdays; are held on secondary school, junior college, or college campuses; and rotated throughout the NCGA territory. This way all of the membership can attend one conference a year with a minimum amount of travel.

The conferences seek to accomplish three things:

1. Educate on broad areas of guidance;
2. Assist in the solution of problems common to many counselors; and
3. Keep the membership informed of local and statewide trends and innovations in guidance.

A pattern has developed in these conferences. They begin with a major address, usually by a national figure. This is followed by seminar-type discussion groups on common problems. Next comes lunch followed by a speaker of more local origin, whose talk is usually on a regional topic or problem, with opportunity for questions and discussion by the audience.

The fall conference this year dealt with

"Modern Trends in Guidance." The winter conference is a joint one with the regional school administrators association, dealing with "What Administrators Should Expect from Counselors and What Counselors Should Expect from Administrators." The spring conference will deal with "Working With Children With Problems."

A current major area of endeavor is to make certain that people actually working in the area of public school pupil personnel work will be consulted and be invited to participate in the current revamping and restructuring of California's various credentials for teaching and working in public educational systems. Another major activity was helping to prepare for California's first statewide conference on guidance held in Long Beach, February 22–24. NCGA, and Mr. Robert France particularly, had the major responsibility for organizing the program and procuring major participants.

For the last four years, the Professional Standards Committee, under the direction of Miss Nel Merrick, has been developing an instrument and technique for evaluating and screening prospective elementary school teachers. In the present state, it appears to be so promising that Miss Merrick and her associates are receiving enthusiastic support from many colleges and the State Department of Education.

Another group, under the direction of Maurice Young, is studying the "Role of the Secondary School Counselor."

NCGA has 11 active committees which report their work through the news letter *The Guidance Reporter* which is published every two months. The Executive Board meets monthly to transact necessary business and give supervision to these committees and their work.

Officers of the organization are: President—Arthur L. Traphagen; President-elect—Margaret Schilling; Secretary Treasurer—Marianne Cotter; Past President—James J. Hamrock, Jr.

WHO'S WHO

and Where

We are eager to reflect in this column news of the professional activities and job changes of our members. Please keep us informed. Notices should be sent to the attention of the Assistant Editor.—Ed.

SISTER MARION HOSINSKI, S.S.M., faculty member of Saint Louis University, St. Louis, Missouri, has been appointed Chairman of the Teaching and Guidance sections of the Department of Nursing Education, which offers a master's program designed to prepare guidance counselors for schools of nursing.

LAWRENCE F. GREENBERGER has joined the staff of the Department of Industrial Education, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana, where he will have major responsibilities in the Industrial Training Program. Dr. Greenberger was formerly Chairman of the Department of Management, School of Business Administration, Duquesne University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

At the Eighth All-Ohio Guidance Conference held in Columbus, October 21 and 22, the following new officers were elected to the Ohio APGA Council: President—VIOLET BICA, School Psychologist, Cleveland Heights Board of Education; Secretary—ELOISE NIXON, Assistant Staff Supervisor, Ohio Bell Telephone, Cleveland; and Program Chairman—DON HALTER, Guidance Counselor, Solon High School, Solon.

CLARENCE W. FAILOR, formerly Associate Professor, School of Education, University of Denver, is on a two-year tour in Panama as Technical Adviser under the International Cooperation Administration. Dr. Failor will assist the Ministry of Education in developing a program of guidance for the Panama public schools and a program of counselor preparation at the University of Panama.

HAROLD S. LOGAN, Director of Training, Household Finance Corporation, Chicago, Illinois, has been promoted to Director of College Relations for HFC. Mr. Logan is Chairman of the APGA Finance Committee.

MARTIN KATZ is Visiting Lecturer at the University of Wisconsin during the second semester, January–June, 1961. He will teach a course in the graduate school and another in the NDEA Guidance Institute. Dr. Katz is on leave of absence from Educational Testing Service where he is Assistant Director of the Evaluation and Advisory Service, Editor of EAS publications, and Editor of ETS *Developments*.

ALBERT S. THOMPSON is serving as Visiting Professor, 1960–1961, for the Afro-Anglo-American Program in Teacher Education. He will spend three months each at the University College of Ghana, the University College of Ibadan, West Nigeria, and the Institute of Education of the University of London. Dr. Thompson is on leave from his duties as Professor, Department of Psychological Foundations and Services, Teachers College, Columbia University.

PAUL A. BLOLAND, formerly Assistant Professor of Educational Psychology and Director of the Student Activities Bureau in the Office of the Dean of Students at the University of Minnesota, has been appointed Dean of Students at Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa.

GERALD SIRCUS has been appointed Assistant Director of the Evening Division of the New York City Community College, Brooklyn, New York, as of the Fall term, 1960. Mr. Sircus was formerly Employment Consultant—Testing for the New York State Division of Employment.

JOHN Z. OKONIEWSKI who has served since 1956 as Assistant Director of Norton Hall, the University of Buffalo Student Union, and as Assistant Coordinator of Student Activities, has been appointed Director of Housing at the University of Buffalo, Buffalo, New York.

SEE YOU IN DENVER
AT THE HILTON

MARCH 27–30, 1961

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A. United States Air Force Academy—a complete tour of the Air Force Academy. Round trip bus fare $2.00 each.

1. Sunday—March 26
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2. Thursday—March 30
   Depart from Denver 12:45 p.m.
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The National Association of Social Workers

The National Association of Social Workers (NASW) became a national professional organization on October 1, 1955, when several related organizations terminated their separate activities to work together as one united group. These parent organizations were American Association of Group Workers, American Association of Medical Social Workers, American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers, American Association of Social Workers, Association for the Study of Community Organization, National Association of School Social Workers, and Social Worker Research Group.

The Association recognizes and carries out a two-fold responsibility: (1) to promote activities appropriate to strengthening and unifying the social work profession as a whole; and (2) to promote the sound and continuous development of the various areas of social work practice whereby the profession contributes to the meeting of particular aspects of human need. To these ends NASW designs a program to attain its several objectives and organizes and uses its resources to maintain consistently a sound balance and integration of its general and special activities.

NASW is composed of more than 27,000 individual members who are organized in 155 chapters located in each state and in Puerto Rico. A master's degree from an accredited school of social work is required for membership in the Association.

Association chapters are local bodies created upon the initiative of members in states, localities, or regions, subject to the approval of the Board of Directors. By pooling the experience of members, the chapters serve as two-way avenues for the development and exchange of local and national thinking, planning, and action within the scope of Association purposes.

A biennial assembly attended by delegates chosen by each chapter provides the chief means of formulating membership opinion on national issues. The program is carried out nationally through sections created by the Delegate Assembly and through commissions and committees established by the Board of Directors of the Association. The results of commission and committee study are submitted to the membership for approval either at the Delegate Assembly or by direct mail vote. In 1960, the Delegate Assembly approved a plan for nationwide certification of social workers effective in 1961.

NASW regularly publishes *Social Work,* its official quarterly journal; the *NASW News,* a quarterly membership bulletin; and the bi-monthly *Personnel Information.* The Washington office periodically publishes a *Report from Washington* when Congress is in session. In 1961, the Association issued the second edition of the *Social Work Year Book,* published under its auspices. The *Year Book* is now issued every three years. For the first time, in 1960, the Association also published its *Directory of Professional Social Workers.* NASW also publishes monographs, pamphlets, and special program materials.

NASW and APGA share many interests in common. School social workers who are members of NASW work side by side with APGA members in the schools, and there are joint professional projects. Psychiatric social workers are particularly close to those engaged in personnel and guidance activities. For the last few years, NASW has joined with other social work organizations in operating a booth at the APGA Convention, stressing social work as a career but also serving as a contact point between social workers and APGA members.

NASW has its headquarters at 95 Madison Avenue, New York 16, New York.

The GAP Gage: "Move Up", the Order of the Day

DINNY DUNSMOOR, DIRECTOR
APGA PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ADVANCEMENT PROGRAM

THE BIG NEWS at this moment here in early December is that APGA membership soared to 13,030 as of the end of November—a new and all-time high for our young and vigorous association. Great commendation is certainly in order for Chairman George W. Murphy and his APGA Membership Committee, along with the many hundreds of others of you who have so ably assisted the Committee in making this outstanding achievement possible.

But what does all this have to do with "GAP"—The Personnel and Guidance Advancement Program? For one thing increased membership means more money for the building fund from the "dues" source. For another, it broadens our membership base to assist in increasing Branch and Completion Gifts to "GAP" and it also makes possible the sale of a number of additional Life Subscriptions. (The number of the latter that can be sold is limited to five per cent of our total membership.) Whenever a member of an organization does at least a little something besides merely paying dues, that organization comes to have a much greater significance and meaning to him.

One disappointing aspect of our GAP drive these past few months has been the seeming lethargy of a sizeable number of Branches insofar as Branch Gifts are concerned. The total realized in Branch and Association Gifts as of this writing is only a little over $12,000, whereas this total should now approximate $20,000. Below are listed the names of those Branches or Associations which have "moved up" and now constitute the Top Ten Contributors with $400 or more from each:

Westchester-Putnam-Rockland PGA	$1,020.00
New York State Counselors Association	1,000.00
Northeastern Ohio PGA	1,000.00
Greater Boston PGA	600.00
Detroit and Vicinity Guidance Association	500.00
New Jersey PGA	500.00
National Capital Area PGA	491.20
Connecticut PGA	400.00
Iowa PGA	400.00
New England Regional Guidance Conference	400.00
Total for the Top Ten Associations	$6,311.20

These ten associations, therefore, have contributed *more than half* of the total thus far realized from the Branches and Associations. It is obvious, therefore, that many others of our Branches have lagged in their contributions to GAP, *some rather dismally,* and that it is thus "moving up time" for them.

Several Branches have not as yet made any Branch Gift (though a few of these are newly organized and perhaps have not yet had time to get established). A sizeable number of others have not contributed in a manner at all commensurate with their potential and with their stature otherwise as Branches of APGA or NVGA.

A rule-of-thumb quota for establishing how much a Branch should contribute to GAP would seem to be at the rate of at least $4.00 per member—spread over a three-year period, perhaps. A few Branches, mostly smaller ones, have already equalled or even exceeded this ratio and are certainly to be highly commended for their fine support of our GAP cause.

Branch officers should re-think this whole matter of Branch Gifts to GAP and take immediate steps to increase their Branch Gifts, even to the extent of inaugurating a special fund raising drive if it is necessary. Certainly our Branches and their members are among the greatest beneficiaries of whatever is done to improve service and performance at APGA HQ—the primary goals of our GAP drive. Is it not, therefore, worth some effort, and if need be, even a bit of sacrifice, for each Branch to *carry its full and just share* of the financial load of APGA. Improved interest and participation in the immediate future will *do a great deal to help us* "GET THE JOB DONE IN SIXTY-ONE."

INTRODUCING

the EXHIBITORS *to the*

1961 American Personnel and Guidance Association Convention

Denver, MARCH 27–30

The American Personnel and Guidance Association is pleased to present this list of selected exhibitors. The exhibits are a significant feature of the Annual Convention. You will find an excellent coverage of texts, tests, and other materials. Plan to visit each exhibitor and place your orders while at the Convention.

American College Testing Program
American Conference on the Advancement of Small Colleges
American Council on Education
American Dietetic Association
American Guidance Service, Inc.
American Home Economics Association
American Legion
American Medical Association
American Occupational Therapy Association
American Optometric Association
American Osteopathic Association
American School
Associated Publishers

California Test Bureau
Camp Fire Girls, Inc.
Careers
Chronical Guidance Publications
Conference Book Service
Consulting Psychologists Press
Council on Social Work Education

Devereux Foundation
DeVry Technical Institute, Inc.

Educational Advisory Center
Educational Council of the Graphic Arts, Inc.
Educational Funds, Inc.
Executive Analysis Corporation

Funds for Education, Inc.

Guidance Films

Harper and Brothers
Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
Houghton Mifflin Company

Joint Committee on Librarianship as a Career

Joint Exhibit of the Colorado Governor's Committee and the President's Committee on Employment of the Physically Handicapped

McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
McKnight & McKnight Publishing Company

National Chiropractic Association
National Committee for Medical Technology
National Forum
National Foundation
National Home Study Council
National Institute of Mental Health
National League for Nursing
National Medical Foundation for Eye Care
National Tuberculosis Association
New York Life Insurance Company

Personnel Press, Inc.
Prentice-Hall, Inc.
The Psychological Corporation

Randall Publishing Company
Rand McNally & Company
Regis College
Richards Rosen Press, Inc.

Science Research Associates, Inc.

United States Air Force
United States Army
United States Civil Service Commission
United States Coast Guard
United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare
United States Department of Labor
United States Marine Corps
United States Navy
U. S. Trade Schools

World Book Company

Young Women's Christian Association

Convention—1961 MARCH 27–30

DENVER HILTON DENVER

Officers and Committee Chairmen of the

AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION

(Consisting of the following divisions: American College Personnel Association, National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers, National Vocational Guidance Association, Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education, American School Counselor Association, and Division of Rehabilitation Counseling)

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The *Journal* is designed as a publication medium for articles dealing with significant practices in personnel and guidance work, current problems in the field, trends in training personnel and guidance workers, and theory and research that give promise of practical application.

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WASHINGTON FLASHES

Transmitted by Max F. Baer

EFFECTS OF LOW INCOME ON CHILDREN

Dimensions of problem: Some effects of low income on children and their families were summarized in Social Security Bulletin for February, 1961, by Lenore A. Epstein of Social Security Administration. It is estimated that in 1959 almost one-fifth of families, with nearly one-fourth of Nation's children, had low incomes. These are families with incomes below taxable limit under Federal income tax laws, i.e., less than $1,325 for mother and child and less than $2,675 for married couple with two children and $4,000 for family of six. Thus there are about 16 million children under age 18 in families with incomes below taxable limit.

Medical care: Among children aged 5-14, those in families with incomes below $4,000 visited dentist only one-third as often as did childen in families with higher incomes. Low-income children saw physicians only two-thirds as often as high-income children.

Education: Office of Education found in 1958 that students who dropped out of college by end of first term came from families with median income $1,000 lower than students who stayed to graduate. Family income of all non-graduates was almost $500 below family income of graduates. Students' ability, however, as measured by placement tests, bore almost no relationship to family income. Of children aged 20-29 in 1960, proportion that had attended or were attending college was about five times as large when family income exceeded $7,500 as when it was less than $3,000.

Working mothers: Among mothers with preschool children (under age 6) proportion in labor force in 1959 was more than three times as large when husband earned less than $3,000 than when his earnings exceeded $10,000. Study made by Bureau of Public Assistant of families receiving aid to dependent children in late 1958 shows that 1 in 9 of children under age 12 whose mothers worked full time were left on their own. Moreover, about one-third of relatives taking care of child, when arrangements for care were reported, were under age 18.

Teenagers helping out: Special survey of unemployment in Utica, N. Y., shows that when men aged 45-54 become unemployed, number of family members (other than wife) in labor force increases from 4 out of every 10 to 7 out of 10.

Moonlighting fathers: Low earnings may cause man with heavy responsibilities to "moonlight"—to take second job, which has adverse effect on family life and children's relationship to father. According to Bureau of Labor Statistics, in December, 1959, 6.5 per cent of married men held two or more jobs at same time.

FAMILY INCOME RISES

Increase over previous year: Average money income of families and persons both reached record levels in 1959, according to estimates of Bureau of Census. Median income of families was $5,400 in 1959, a net gain of $330, or 6 per cent, over 1958. For persons, median income was $2,600; this was $130, or 5 per cent higher than a year earlier. Most of increase represented gain in real purchasing power, since prices rose only slightly between 1958 and 1959.

Twelve-year increase: Rise in family incomes continued general upswing in income during most of postwar period. Between 1947 and 1959, average family money income has risen from $3,000 to $5,400, or about 80 per cent. A good part of this advance reflected rise in consumer prices, but there was also substantial increase in real purchasing power. In terms of constant (1959) dollars, average family money income increased from about $4,000 in 1947 to $5,400 in 1959, a rise that averaged about $120 a year over this period.

Income by major occupation groups: Median income of professional, technical, and kindred workers was $11,892 for self-employed and $7,894 for salaried workers; for farmers and farm managers it was $2,611; for managers, officials, and proprietors it was $6,395 for self-employed and $8,584 for salaried workers; for clerical and kindred workers it was $6,004; for sales workers it was $6,751; for craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers it was $6,369; for operatives and kindred workers it was $5,418; for private household workers it was $1,596; for other service workers it was $4,632; for farm laborers and foremen it was $2,270; for laborers except farm and mine it was $4,399.

The Vocational Adjustment Shop

HELPING physically rehabilitated persons bridge the gap between the rehabilitation facility and gainful employment is an increasingly important problem for vocational agencies. Improvements in physical and psychological rehabilitation techniques result in a continued flow of disabled applicants who, though physically capable of working, are unable to function on the job. Experimentation with varied approaches to vocational rehabilitation of "apparent unemployables"—intensified counseling, selective placement, and workshop techniques—indicate that a substantial proportion require a combined counseling-workshop program as a prerequisite to entering the labor market.

Workshops devoted to preparing disabled persons for employment tend to stress either the acquisition of skills or the attainment of a work personality. Depending upon their emphasis, they may be classified broadly as occupational training shops which train disabled persons in specific occupations, or as vocational adjustment shops which use work experience to develop appropriate work behavior and attitudes. In contrast to the occupational training shop, which has a long history, the vocational adjustment shop is a relatively recent innovation. The first such shop, the Vocational Adjustment Center of the Chicago Jewish Vocational Service, dates back to 1951. There are comparatively few articles describing the rationale and program of vocational adjustment shops. This paper examines the vocational adjustment shop as a vocational rehabilitation technique relating the design and program of the shop to the types of clients served.

The Vocational Adjustment Shop as a Situational Technique

The objective of a vocational adjustment shop is to raise the level of employability of disabled persons, using work as a therapeutic tool for modifying work attitudes or behavior. It is a situational technique which, in conjunction with vocational counseling, uses a 10-week work experience program in a simulated work environment to help "apparently unemployable" handicapped persons overcome psycho-social barriers preventing entry into competitive employment. The emphasis is upon generalized preparation for work rather than skill training.

The program operates on two levels—as a work situation for clients and as a therapeutic tool for counselors. Clients in a vocational adjustment shop participate in a true work situation. They report and work on subcontracts secured from industrial firms. Clients work eight hours a day, four and one-half days per week, and are paid on an hourly basis. Problems not directly concerned with the work situation are discussed with other vocational counselors during non-working hours. Clients learn to adhere to rules and become acclimated to the mechanics of work. As they adapt to working with other persons, they gain confidence in their ability to work and see themselves as productive.

On the covert level, foremen-counselors participate in a therapeutic process centering on the use of work as a rehabilitative tool. They begin with a picture of the client's vocational pattern and work personality derived from case material and an intake conference which includes psychologists, counselors, caseworkers, and psychiatrists. The foremen develop a work plan or

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program for the client which specifies the type of work, the degree of success desired, the amount of pressure, the type of satisfaction, supervisory attitudes, and the quality of relationships with co-workers. All elements of work can be varied within predetermined limits. Clients can work alone or in groups. Supervisory attitudes can be benign, matter-of-fact, or stern. Extent of activity, type of work, and supervisory pressures can be modified as necessary to facilitate client growth. As the client continues in the shop, the elements of the work program are modified in accordance with client needs.

The essential factors in the design of the vocational adjustment shop as a situational or life experience technique in vocational rehabilitation appear to be:

1. The vocational adjustment shop which simulates a true or realistic work setting with respect to wages, hours, conditions of work, and employer-employee relationships. The external facade, the shop atmosphere, the absence of medical therapy, and the demeanor of the foremen induce clients to view and react to the shop as they would to competitive employment.

2. Counselors, psychologists, or caseworkers who function as foremen adhere to the role of foremen while on the shop floor. The use of professionally trained persons as shop foremen adds a qualitative dimension to the analysis of work behavior, the formulation of work programs, and facilitates integration of counseling and shop activities.

3. The vocational adjustment shop is part of a total vocational program. The work program is developed with the vocational counselor and incorporates his hypotheses regarding the client as a worker. The shop permits the counselor to test these hypotheses and provides data which can be integrated into the counseling process. The counselor sees clients on a weekly basis and meets with shop staff every two weeks to evaluate client growth and to plan the ensuing work program.

4. The process of vocational development serves as a conceptual framework for formulating individualized work programs for shop clients.

5. Major aspects of the work activity and the work environment are modifiable. The work program is determined by client needs and changed as the client changes. Factors which can be individualized are the type of work, working conditions, job satisfactions, wages, work pressure, the degree of success, supervisory attitudes, and relations with other clients. Modifiability enables the vocational adjustment shop to establish conditions which permit observation of a particular client's work behavior and functioning capacity. Hypotheses regarding factors facilitating or inhibiting employability can be tested by developing an appropriate work model for a given client.

6. The vocational adjustment shop sets a predetermined time limit for the client's stay in the shop. (The Vocational Adjustment Center of the Jewish Vocational Service uses a two-week evaluation period and an eight-week adjustment period.) Although the adjustment period may be lengthened for a limited number of clients, a fairly rigid termination date is necessary if the vocational adjustment shop is to avoid the quality and character of a terminal sheltered workshop.

Unemployability and Vocational Development

An employable individual is defined as one who differentiates work settings from other social situations, is productive in a work situation, behaves appropriately in job seeking and on-the-job activities, and conforms to accepted characterizations of a good worker. The unemployable person is one who does not meet these criteria. Unemployability in vocational adjustment shop client results from (1) failure to learn to work during the developmental period, or (2) loss of employability because of separation from a work environment, or (3)

inability to adjust to work. The various forms of unemployability reflect problems of vocational development. Shop programming in turn is based upon the conceptual framework presented below.

The adult or young adult entering the labor market is not automatically employable because he attains physical maturity. Employability is a learned attribute, the culmination of a process of socialization which begins at birth. The family constellation provides the behavioral patterns and motivational systems which induce the child to achieve and become productive. School continues the process of learning to work through school tasks and homework. During the primary school period, the child develops the knack of working with his peers and adapting to authority. As he becomes older, after-school and summer employment succeed household chores. When he begins his formal work life he is prepared for the pressures and tensions of work. He exhibits a work personality which facilitates adjustment on the job. If handicapping conditions occur, they may result in interpersonal or interactional difficulties in a work situation.

In contrast, the disabled child is deprived of the complex of family chores and responsibilities which develop a sense of productivity and work satisfaction. The birth of a child with an apparent disability induces parental attitudes of over-protection or rejection which limit independent activities. School brings segregation or isolation. Lower standards for the handicapped diminish the achievement drive. Prejudice against disabled persons restricts opportunities for summer or after-school work. As disabled young adults, they lack the knowledge and experience which underpin a work personality. Having learned how not to work, they see themselves as unproductive and unable to work.

A somewhat similar process occurs with adults disabled by accident, injury, or a psychotic episode. Incapacity or institutionalization separates the disabled person from a work routine. In assuming the role of a patient, he loses his productive orientation. He is immersed in an environment which leads him to expect assistance. Prolonged disablement without a planned work program renders him unable to fulfill a work role. He does not appear to be a "good worker" and is viewed as relatively unplaceable in the labor market.

Vocational Adjustment Shop Programs

Programming in a vocational adjustment shop is based upon the foregoing analysis of vocational development or regression in disabled persons. It assumes there are three categories of vocationally handicapped persons—the non-productive, the unplaceable and the unadjustable—and that each requires a different type of program.

1. *The non-productive.* This group consists of persons who are unable to function in a work setting. They lack a meaningful work history, having never held a job. They appear to be unmotivated for work and do not perceive themselves as workers.

The vocational adjustment shop program for this group reproduces the normal course of vocational development. The process begins with exposure to a work milieu which facilitates achievement and productivity. Simple tasks are used to permit attaining productive goals. Success, praise, and reassuring supervisory attitudes foster motivation. Competition is minimized. Supervisory attitudes stress the importance of the work role and adapting to job demands. Work tasks are selected which are meaningful to the client and which engender a sense of satisfaction. Wages induce a feeling of independence. The client works in an atmosphere which maximizes his perception of himself as a worker.

2. *The unplaceables.* The unplaceables, the second category of the vocationally handicapped, experience great difficulty in finding employment because they do not appear to be good workers. Although they may be able to work, their appearance and demeanor categorize them as marginal applicants who have little possibility of securing work in any but the tightest labor market. Personnel men reject members of this group because their vocational pattern does not conform to accepted occupational

stereotypes or because they manifest the typical long-term unemployment syndrome —lack of self-confidence, a feeling of uselessness, and a sense of failure. Rehabilitation agencies see them as unsuccessful job hunters, clients whose employment histories exhibit an occasional job interspersed with lengthy periods of unemployment.

The vocational adjustment shop uses a work acculturation program for this group. The program is designed to enable the unplaceable client to act the role of a "good worker," a person who conforms to accepted occupational stereotypes. Supervision emphasizes realistic job expectations, appropriate demeanor and dress, acceptable attitudes, and the development of self-confidence. Job pressures are increased during the process. Wage increases are awarded for increased productivity. The degree of success and failure is varied to inculcate the ability to handle work problems without excessive frustration. Reality testing helps to establish limits for work behavior. Supervision becomes matter-of-fact or rigid as the client gains self-confidence and acquires experience. Job tempo and work pressure increase until the level of competitive industry is attained.

3. *The unadjustables.* This group consists of individuals with inappropriate work personalities. Though productive and able to secure work, they cannot adjust on the job. Seeking interpersonal satisfactions which are not normally found at work, they feel a sense of frustration in their work life. Their work history is one of frequent quits or discharges because of difficulties with supervisors or co-workers.

The work adjustment program emphasizes the development of an appropriate work personality through group work activities, stressing cooperation and collaboration. Supervisory attitudes foster interactional patterns which decrease frustration with fellow workers. The patterning of the work group and choice of tasks encourage working toward common goals. With increasing job satisfaction, the client is given the opportunity to function as a group leader. Supervision helps him to perceive and adapt to customary supervisory and work roles. Wage increases and non-pecuniary incentives serve to reinforce his acceptance of the work role.

Advantages and Disavantages of a Vocational Adjustment Shop

The advantages of a vocational adjustment shop appear to be the following:

1. The resemblance of the vocational adjustment workshop to a real life work situation permits better evaluation and prediction of work behavior and job adjustment than is possible with other diagnostic techniques.

2. Placing the client in a work medium focused on problems of job adjustment permits observations and treatment of (a) the non-intellectual aspects of work; (b) the interaction of personal and social factors at work; and (c) questions of functioning ability.

3. The work experience enables both counselor and client to visualize and deal with aspects of work behavior normally not revealed in interviewing or testing situations.

4. The client is able to test himself as a worker in a work situation which limits the possibilities and consequences of failure.

The disadvantages of a vocational adjustment shop appear to be the following:

1. The vocational adjustment workshop may be used improperly as an isolated technique without reference to vocational counseling. This may result in a mechanical approach with insufficient attention to the psychodynamic aspects of the vocational pattern.

2. The workshop may tend to acquire the atmosphere of a terminal workshop unless a realistic time limit is set on the length of a client's stay in the workshop.

3. Interaction among workshop factors may make it difficult to determine the effect of a given factor upon client behavior and attitudes.

4. In certain instances, the workshop may not reproduce work pressures and motivation analagous to those of a true work situation. Hence, there may be a good deal of variance between workshop behavior and work behavior in competitive employment.

The Effects of Short-Term Group Counseling On Prospective Counselors

GEORGE GAZDA and MERLE OHLSEN

MOST SCHOOL counselors begin their professional life as teachers. From Jersild's [5] findings on a group of over one thousand teachers, one can conclude that many of these teachers were low-affect and over-controlled people who wanted to learn to live more richly. The fact that 68 out of 84 in the present study volunteered for group counseling tends to support Jersild's statement that teachers were eager to participate in group counseling.

There are a number of other reasons why group counseling should be an effective method for treating prospective counselors. It provides them with an opportunity: (a) to discover that others like themselves have problems, that they can be helped by counseling, and that by solving these problems they can live more richly; (b) to extend their knowledge of human behavior and to apply this knowledge in understanding peers; (c) to observe, while obtaining help for themselves, how a qualified counselor assists various clients; and (d) to apply their knowledge of counseling techniques by assuming the co-therapist role in attempting to help others.

Method

The parent population for the experimental group consisted of 68 prospective counselors enrolled in either a graduate course in group guidance techniques or one of three sections of a course on principles and practices in counseling taught at the University of Illinois during the summer session of 1958.

Since time was limited to seven weeks in an eight-week summer session the chief criteria for selection of clients were (1) that they had problems with which they wished to obtain help, and (2) that they were willing immediately to begin talking about themselves and the problems which worried them.

All but one of the 35 selected subjects completed the seven weeks of group counseling. Of the 34 who completed the counseling, all but three had taken at least two graduate courses in guidance and counseling. There were 16 males and 18 females. The mean age of the males was 30.0 years and the mean age of the females was 33.[illegible] years. Except for six cases for which their class schedules conflicted with the meeting time of the counseling group, the members of the experimental group were randomly placed (by sex) into four groups. These groups were composed as follows: E-1 = [illegible] males and 4 females; E-2 = 4 males and [illegible] females; E-3 = 3 males and 4 females; and E-4 = 5 males and 4 females.

A different counselor was employed for each group. From a comparison of written descriptions of their counseling procedures before and after the counseling and considering that three of them were trained by the fourth, the degree of similarity among them was found to be high; therefore, the experimental groups' data were combined.

Each of the counseling groups met twice a week for one-hour sessions, over a period of seven weeks. All sessions for all groups were recorded with the subjects' knowledge

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Since those who volunteered for counseling were not available for counseling after the treatment period, control groups were selected from students enrolled in a regular term. One of the control groups, C-1 (15 in number), was selected from a class of 24 graduate students enrolled in a course on the principles and practices in counseling during the spring semester of 1959. This group was similar to the experimental groups in age, sex composition, teaching experience, and training in guidance and/or counseling, but these control group members did not request counseling when it was offered. A second control group, C-2, consisted of four males and three females who volunteered for counseling, but in other respects was similar to C-1. After they volunteered for counseling, they were required to wait for a seven-week period during which they served as a control group.

When compared with themselves, only changes in the clients were examined for the pre- to post-testing period and for a six-month follow-up period. Changes in the experimental subjects—when compared with the control subjects (C-1 and C-2)—were determined for the pre- to post-testing period only.

Change in the subjects' mental health was based on (a) acceptance of self and of others in response to the Picture Story Test[1] [2]; (b) social conflict and stability of the self-concept determined by responses on a modified version of John J. Brownfain's Self-Rating Inventory [3]; (c) movement toward a "Model of Adjustment" measured by Ohlsen's and Broedel's modified Behavior Rating Scale [2]; and (d) the change in manifest needs measured by Edwards' Personal Preference Schedule.

The investigators tested a number of different relationships in this study. First, they tested the mean difference (t-test for two independent samples) between the combined experimental groups (E) and each of the two control groups (C-1 and C-2) for the pre-post periods. (Since it was not possible to obtain follow-up data on the control groups, no follow-up comparisons between the experimental groups and control groups were made.) Second, the combined experimental groups were compared with themselves (t-test for correlated variables) over the pre-post period. Third, E was compared with itself over the pre-six month follow-up period. Fourth, each of the experimental groups (E-1, E-2, E-3, E-4) was compared with itself over the pre-post period. Fifth, each of the experimental groups was compared with itself over the pre-six-month follow-up period. After the data had been analyzed in the preceding five phases a second follow-up (after 14 months) was attempted with the experimental subjects; 27 questionnaires were returned, and 14 of the 34 experimental subjects returned to the campus where they were interviewed and administered the Picture Story Test. (A limited budget required that the investigators limit travel funds to subjects living within a radius of 200 miles of the campus. Fourteen of the 17 members contacted returned to the campus for follow-up testing.)

The t-test for the mean difference between both correlated and uncorrelated variables was appropriately applied throughout. It was felt that for an exploratory study of this nature an alpha of 0.05 was stringent enough.

Results

Acceptance of Self and Others. The scoring procedure devised by Ohlsen and Schultz [6] was used to evaluate subjects' attitudes of acceptance of self and of others as reflected in the protocols of the Picture Story Test both before and after the experimental period and for 14 experimental subjects re-tested 14 months after counseling. The following five pictures were included in this test: Card II of Murray's TAT; Card I of the Michigan Picture Test; and Cards I, IV, and V of Alexander's and Cronbach's adaptation of the TAT.

The data did not support the directional hypothesis that there would be a statistically

[1] There were two follow-up testing periods: one six months after termination of counseling (100 per cent returns) and one 14 months after termination of counseling (80 per cent returns). Since all data obtained on the six-month follow-up were secured by mail no Picture Story Test data were obtained for this period.

significant gain in acceptance of self, of others, and of self and others combined over the pre-post period. However, prior to analyzing the data, the counselors concluded that the treatment was too short and that several of their clients were just beginning to cope with their problems when counseling terminated. This idea also is supported by other instruments used in this study which detected a trend toward improvement over the pre- to six-month follow-up period and a pre- to 14-month follow-up. In fact, the mean gain in acceptance of self over the pre-14-month follow-up period was statistically significant at the 0.05 level. However, neither the mean change between acceptance of others nor the acceptance of self and others combined was statistically significant.

Stability of the Self-Concept. When tested by a modified version of Brownfain's Self Rating Inventory prospective counselors failed to make statistically significant gains over the pre-post period. In fact, they had (though not statistically significant) lower mean scores at the close of counseling than they had at the beginning. The six-month follow-up data revealed that the mean difference scores for the Stability of the Self-Concept variable increased over the pre-test; for E-3 the change was statistically significant.

Social Conflict. Social Conflict, as measured by a modified version of Brownfain's Self Rating Inventory, failed to change significantly over the pre-post testing period for the experimental subjects. The mean difference score on the pre- to six-month follow-up testing, however, had increased in the predicted, or healthy, direction, but not enough to be statistically significant.

Movement Toward a Model of Adjustment. The "Movement Score" was obtained by taking the difference between the subjects' self-rating and a rating called the "Model." The difference between the pretest and the Model was compared with the post-test and the Model. The Model was the crude mode of the ratings made by 23 clinical and/or counseling psychologists who indicated where, along a seven-point scale, an "ideally adjusted" person would fall with respect to each item on the Behavior Rating Scale. Each of the 32 items on the Behavior Rating Scale was a description of human behavior.

At post-testing the experimental subjects appeared less healthy than at pre-testing. The difference, however, was not statistically significant. The six-month follow-up scores were in the predicted (healthy) direction but were not statistically significant.

Manifest Needs: Exhibition, Autonomy, Dominance, Heterosexuality, and Aggression. Studies employing the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule by Jackson and Guba [*4*] and Bosdell [*1*] revealed that teachers, as a group, were low in the variables Exhibition and Heterosexuality. Bosdell also found that elementary teachers were low in the variables Autonomy, Dominance, and Aggression. From Jersild [5] the investigators further concluded that teachers, and thus these prospective counselors, were low in affect and over-controlled. Therefore they concluded that as these prospective counselors began to accept themselves they would reduce their control and increase their scores on most, if not all, of the above variables.

When t ratios were computed only random significant changes were detected. The t ratio was statistically significant in the predicted direction for the Autonomy variable between the combined experimental groups (E) and C-2 over the pre-post period. When the t ratio for E alone was compared for the pre-post testing period, a statistically significant increase in the Autonomy variable also was obtained.

When compared with themselves (t ratios for correlated variables) over the pre-post period, E-2 and E-3 exhibited statistically significant increases in the need for heterosexuality over the pre-post period. Over the pre-six-month follow-up period, the only group to make statistically significant change was E-4; it showed a significant increase in the variables Exhibition and Autonomy.

Manifest Needs: Deference, Order, Affiliation, and Endurance. Jackson and Guba [*4*] and Bosdell [*1*] reported that teachers as a group scored higher than the

norm group in the Deference, Order, and Endurance variables. Bosdell [1] also found that her sample of elementary teachers scored higher than the norm group in the Affiliation variable. The investigators hypothesized that teachers, as a group, should score higher in these variables because of their need to conform. Considering their high scores for these variables as a sign of over-conforming, the investigators further hypothesized that short-term group counseling should help these individuals reduce their need to conform. The *t* ratios obtained did not support the hypothesis.

Manifest Needs: Achievement, Intraception, Succorance, Abasement, Nurturance, and Change. Jackson and Guba [4] and Bosdell [1] reported that teachers scored neither high nor low in the variables Achievement, Intraception, Succorance, Abasement, Nurturance, and Change. Having no precedent on which to predict change in a particular direction, the investigators hypothesized that there would be no significant changes in the scores for these scales. Intuitively, however, they concluded that the need for abasement, for improved adjustment, should decrease if not over the pre-post period at least over the pre-six-month follow-up period.

The statistically significant changes that were obtained were as follows: (1) the combined experimental group (E) decreased more significantly over the pre-post period in Abasement than did C-2; thus in this instance the hypothesis of no change was rejected; (2) when the E Group was compared with itself for both the pre-post and pre-six-month follow-up periods, it decreased enough in the Abasement variable to reject a hypothesis of no change; (3) the E's increase in the Achievement variable over the pre-six-month follow-up period was large enough to reject a hypothesis of no change; (4) the E's decrease in the Succorance variable over the pre-six-month follow-up was great enough to reject a hypothesis of no change; and (5) when the experimental groups were analyzed separately, a random picture of statistically significant changes occurred. Over the pre-post period, E-1 decreased significantly in the need for intraception and E-2 decreased significantly in the need for Nurturance and Change. For the pre-follow-up period, E-4 decreased significantly in the need for Nurturance.

Fourteen-Month Follow-up

Those 14 who were able to return to the campus were interviewed concerning their summer counseling experiences. Those who lived too far away to be invited back to the campus were asked to answer the same questions on a questionnaire. Thirteen additional persons completed this questionnaire. Their answers clearly indicated that improvements in their general mental health continued beyond the six-month follow-up period. Each was asked to state in his own words how group counseling had helped him. Ten of the 27 said that it had helped them to better understand and to accept themselves. Seven reported that it helped to make them more aware of their unresolved conflicts and the ways in which these conflicts interfered with their relationships with others. Six reported that they felt more at ease in public and found it easier to meet others. Seven felt that they had learned to better accept and to cooperate with others. Two reported that counseling had not changed their behavior.

When asked whether group counseling had hurt them in any way, only three reported that it had. All three reported that in counseling some problems had been uncovered which they did not have adequate time and assistance to resolve. Two of these continued to work on these problems by themselves; the third sought the aid of a counselor on an individual basis.

When asked what they had done to improve their adjustment following the termination of counseling, only two reported nothing; four had sought individual counseling; three had taken additional course work; nine had sought help for themselves by reading; and the remainder had made various other efforts to improve their adjustment.

Nineteen of the 27 felt that the one-hour sessions twice a week for seven weeks were too short a period to *best* help them solve their problems; only one felt the counseling

period was too long; and seven felt it was about right. All of the counselors, however, felt that the counseling period was too short. Even so, there were indications that many of these clients were able to continue to help themselves following the termination of counseling. If perhaps a longer period of treatment had been available to the clients, the trends toward improved adjustment obtained from the follow-up data would have reached statistical significance.

Discussion

Except for the changes in manifest needs, a strict statistical interpretation of the hypothesis tested in this study, for the most part, would indicate that short-term group counseling is ineffective in improving the mental health of essentially normal individuals. Significant changes in manifest needs were almost all in the predicted direction (and every one in a healthy direction): (1) increase in Autonomy for E; (2) increase in Heterosexuality for E-2 and E-3; (3) increase in Exhibition for E-4; (4) decrease in Abasement for E; (5) increase in Achievement for E; (6) decrease in Succorance for E; (8) decrease in Nurturance for E-2 and E-4.

If, on the other hand, the general trend in the changes detected is considered in conjunction with the clients' impressions of what happened to them, a more heartening conclusion seems warranted. According to data obtained from the four instruments used in this study the clients appeared less well adjusted at the close of counseling than they were at the beginning. After a six-month follow-up, however, they appeared better adjusted than they were prior to counseling. Finally, Picture Story Test data obtained from 14 clients, interview data obtained from the same 14 clients, and questionnaire responses obtained from 13 additional clients in the 14-month follow-up suggested that gains in adjustment had continued beyond the six-month follow-up period.

Finally, there is the sobering thought that the instruments used in this study, or in similar research for that matter, may not be capable of detecting the changes in adjustment that essentially normal persons make during counseling. A majority of the clients reported that they were happier individuals and better able to relate to others as a result of the experience, and a couple began to re-evaluate whether they should become counselors. Perhaps this is evidence enough of the value of group counseling.

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SEMINAR FOR COLLEGE RECRUITERS TO BE HELD IN NEW YORK CITY

A seminar on Recruiting College Graduates will meet June 12–14, and a seminar on How to Interview will meet June 14–16, both at the Statler-Hilton Hotel in New York City. Sponsored by the Institute of Occupational Research, the seminars will be under the direction of Professor Robert Hoppock of New York University. Further information may be obtained from the Institute at 104 Webster Avenue, Manhasset, New York.

STRUCTURE: An Essential Framework for Research

MARGARET B. FISHER and ROBERT M. ROTH

Wherever two or three are gathered together, guidance and personnel workers are almost certain to voice the need for more research. Yet the volume of research reported in the journals is respectable. The need expressed may arise out of the feeling that research in the field should have more meaning. Sometimes this feeling is expressed as a desire for research that is "less theoretical" and "has more practical applications."

But significance in research is not necessarily a function of its practical applications as distinct from its theoretical implications. It is rather a function of the extent to which both theoretical and practical implications can be derived from the research. These qualities are related to the structure of the method of research rather than to its subject matter. The most highly theoretical material as well as the most concrete and practical can be significantly interpreted, provided the needed structure is given.

Current Research Typified

The sense of inadequacy, therefore, may be based in some genuine shortcomings of research methods currently used in the field or of the form in which research is reported. In recent literature on achievement, for example, three characteristics seem to typify the structure of much current research.

1. *Single factors are investigated.* In 10 recent studies of achievement reported in the *Personnel and Guidance Journal,* eight dealt with single factors, for example: fraternity membership [*1*]; Rorschach measures [*3*]; underachievement [*8*]; social acceptance [2]; employment [*9*]; mental maturity and intelligence measures [*12*]; role of parents [*11*]; and race [*5*]. Factors such as these represent complex variables, to be sure; it is possible to investigate their effects independent of other factors.

2. *Single instruments are used.* It is, of course, necessary to validate instruments and the logical and statistical methods used in studying specific factors. Of the 10 studies reviewed, five essentially employed single instruments. Five applied multiple measures to the study of a single factor; the results were then correlated.

3. *Single dimensions are measured.* Of the studies of achievement selected, all 10 employed a single dimension in measurement. Factors were investigated in depth in five cases, in extent in five; no longitudinal studies appeared in this group of reports, although predictive conclusions were drawn in some instances; there were no multi-dimensional studies.

Of 90 studies on achievement reported in *Psychological Abstracts* between 1954 and 1959, 67 were based on specific analyses of these three types, and 23 dealt with multiple factors. The predominant characteristic found seemed to be high focus on a single specific nexus between achievement and a factor or factors conceived to affect it. Even among the 23 multiple-factor studies, several could be construed as being essentially focused on a single point of effective influence. The difference between single- and multiple-factor studies appeared to lie in the employment of complex concepts (personality or culture, for example) in multiple-factor studies, whereas single-factor studies tended to employ simpler, more narrowly defined concepts (specific aptitudes or interests, for example). Both types, however, were predominantly designed to

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define a single point of contact between factor and behavior.

Achievement as a Form of Behavior

At least five important elements in the general concept of achievement were not covered in the majority of the reports studied. If achievement is understood as a form of human behavior, then some of these characteristics of human behavior should somehow be taken into account in the research design. Among these important characteristics of the generally accepted view of human behavior are the following:

1. *Factors affecting behavior can be measured independently, but function interdependently.* Unless both independent and interdependent functions are taken into account in research, the knowledge gained is limited to a single function of a single factor. If correlations between different factors are found, it can be assumed that they function interdependently. But the nature of their interdependence may or may not be fully described by the pattern of correlation between independently measured factors. Measurement of the effect of interdependent functioning itself is needed for adequate knowledge of the nature of interdependence. Assumptions based on correlations remain assumptions, until they are followed up with direct evidence of behavior requiring interdependent functioning of multiple factors. For example, standardized tests of adult intelligence are designed to yield such measures of both independent and interdependent functioning [*6*].

2. *Factors affecting behavior, functioning interdependently, are generally viewed as complexes of behavior patterns, or constellations of traits, rather than single elements.* Treatment of such configurations as a single element is, of course, both necessary and desirable in research. But it is also necessary and desirable to bear in mind that there may be more than a single nexus between such a constellation of factors and behavior related to it. If even one such relationship be found, that is all to the good. But beyond that point, an investigator can and should seek some indication of other possible points of relationship and influence on behavior for the constellation studied. Hypothetical formulations would be especially useful as guides to other observers.

3. *Behavior is over-determined.* The results, especially of single-element analysis, can never be regarded deterministically. Multiple causation of behavior is generally postulated and must be kept in mind in research design and interpretation. Intelligence, as measured by standardized tests, for example, is regarded as a function of single factors and their interdependent functions, both specifically analyzed. Allowance is made, in standard error estimates, for related but uncalculated elements in intellectual functioning demonstrated under test conditions. The study of achievement, assumed to be the result of complex interdependent functioning, must be regarded as over-determined, and over-determination should be accounted for in research design and interpretation.

4. *Behavior is the effect of developmental sequences, as well as of immediate responses.* Studies *in extenso,* yielding distributional results, must at least assume that related factors exist in depth and duration, if they are to be adequately interpreted [*8*].

5. *Behavior is free as well as determined. Unique factors appear as the result of developmental trends as well as independent of any recognizable factors in the immediate situation.* The concept of standard error also allows for such unique appearances. Predictive procedures have to be understood as providing for unpredictable events—changes of trend, unaccustomed responses, and the like. The range of possibility is greater than the range of prediction. The latter is most useful when it points to the former.

All of these elements are pointed out by current research. But pointing is not enough; these elements deserve to be included in the design and interpretation of research. At present, it does not seem unreasonable to suspect that there may be a cleavage between the conceptual structure employed in understanding behavior (if the study of achievement is a suitable example),

on the one hand, and the structure of research, on the other. Research appears for the most part to tend to employ a deterministic frame of reference for behavior; point-to-point referents and correlations are sought. Both theoretical and practical concepts of behavior, however, are global in character. Over-determination is assumed, as well as multiple referents and correlations, interdependencies and constellations, contrasting with single-element findings from research. The anticipated fit between the single-element research findings and the multiple-factor concepts is not always provided in the research design. Perhaps this cleavage between expectations and results accounts for some of the uneasiness felt in trying to employ the findings of research. The feeling of inadequacy may be due to the effort required in interpreting and applying research in order to make single-element studies yield meaning in a multiple-factor conceptual framework.

Need For Conceptual Structure

In order to attempt to bridge such a gap between research and application, study and understanding, the abandonment of single-element analysis in favor of multiple-factor study of global elements is not necessarily required. Highly specific, narrowly limited research can yield valuable findings; however, its value may be increased if the results are related to an adequate conceptual structure. This structure, however, has to be part of the program of research; it cannot be tacked on afterwards, any more than "architecture" can be put on to a house after it is built. The architectonics of research is applicable to minor renovations and improvements as well as new construction.

At this point, it might therefore be advisable for personnel-guidance workers to shift their concern about research from questions of quantitative output to problems of structure. Certain structural elements can be effectively used in research only if there is substantial consensus among workers in the field about their nature and meaning. For example, assumptions generally agreed upon can be checked empirically only if there is a certain degree of clarity and specificity in their formulation; and these refinements must be part of the consensus about the assumptions themselves. Arriving at some consensus about the assumptions on which the study of achievement is based might improve the value of current research.

Four fundamentals of an adequate structure are proposed, as a basis for discussion leading to a possible consensus, with examples of their application to the study of achievement.

1. *Postulates.* The assumptions needed for research in achievement should be expressed as postulates covering at least the following factors: the nature of the self; the developmental process of learning; and the nature of academic institutions and processes. The process of examining assumptions and putting them into the form of postulates guards against the unintentional use of unexamined assumptions or preconceptions.

2. *Interdependent functions.* The postulated interdependent relationships among concepts of the self, the learning process, and the academic enterprise should also be clarified.

3. *Hypothetical system.* Multiple hypotheses, with stated interrelationships, should be devised; and single-factor hypotheses should be clearly related to this multiple system, if research is to be limited to a single element. For example, in research on achievement, intellectual factors to be tested could be related to hypotheses and/or postulates about the academic process.

4. *Criteria of adequacy.* Results of achievement studies, for example, should be significant for both independent factors and interdependent functions, related both to hypotheses and postulates, significant for both institutional practices and self-understanding. Criteria employed should cover both accuracy of single-element analysis and adequacy of relationships to the postulational and hypothetical structure.

These elements are readily recognizable as part of the classic concept of scientific method. Perhaps one reason for the sense

of inadequacy of some research is the tendency to take short cuts in designing research, to compress inductive and deductive processes, or to use one instead of both. One guidance worker who has produced a considerable volume of research discovered that he had been deriving hypotheses from his data. There is nothing wrong with this procedure, the inductive approach to hypothesizing; but the deductive procedure, deriving hypotheses from postulates, and comparing the hypotheses inductively established with those deductively derived, in order to establish similarities and differences between them, is omitted. He found that he was running the risk of employing unexamined assumptions, not clearly related to his hypotheses, in evaluating his results. He was neglecting to develop postulates as part of his conceptual framework.

Hypotheses carry two-way traffic between postulates and data. They consequently must be formulated in relation to both. "If the hypothesis suggested by these data be true, then postulate X is supported," illustrates the form of an adequate proposition relating the hypothesis to the conceptual framework of research. Without this relation being made clear, the findings of research are not so readily applicable as they might be. Sound postulates must be formulated, and also the conditions necessary for their application must be determined. A postulate can be valid or adequate and still be applicable to certain aspects of behavior and not to others. Research is not useful in making such distinctions unless the relations of hypothetical to postulational structure are defined in the research design, through the deductive formulation of hypotheses from postulates, as well as the inductive formulation of hypotheses from data.

For example, in the study of achievement, it may be postulated that the direction of achievement is upward. Achievement may be defined as an upward trend in movement, progress through levels of steadily increasing complexity and value, or mastery of developmentally related tasks. In any case, achievement is assumed to be upward movement. Hypotheses about factors in under-achievement [8] could be related to this postulate. Null hypotheses may point to indeterminate direction, or to factors determining the reversal of the trend in particular instances. If results indicate indeterminate trends and directions, the whole set of postulates forming the concept of achievement may have to be re-examined. If factors reversing the trend are found, the findings may make it possible to distinguish between conditions in which the postulate of upward movement is applicable and those in which it is inapplicable.

Such an approach to research design would be truly multivariate. It would make possible the analysis, not only of variable elements in experience, but also of necessary variations in conceptual structure—in hypothetical systems, in systems of postulates, in criteria of adequacy, as well as in extent, depth, and duration of observed behavior.

Achievement Study Illustrated

Applying such a structured multivariate system to the study of achievement might make it possible to begin to devise a general theory of achievement. Leaving out the whole area of learning theory, it might make possible the development of the following elements needed:

1. Determination of constants in the self-system and the institutional (academic) system. ("Constants" might be regarded as including continuities, uniformities, and developmental congruities as well as invariable elements.)

2. Determination of variables in the self-system
   a. Standards of achievement
   b. Aptitude
   c. Performance
   d. Emotions
   e. Developmental sequences
   f. Social class factors

3. Determination of variables in the academic system
   a. Standards of achievement
   b. Institutional resources
   c. Physical environment
   d. Teacher-student relations
   e. Cultural patterns

4. Checking postulates and the conceptual system they represent against empirical evidence.

5. Validation of a general theory of achievement.

This does not mean that further research cannot be undertaken without a general theory within which to operate. On the contrary, theoretical structures can be built only by means of painstaking research. But each piece of research, whether it deals with single or multiple factors, must be related to general theoretical structure, and contribute to its completion, renovation, and alteration. The conceptual context of each research design needs to be made clear in relation to the particular hypotheses investigated. The gain lies in the additional significance of the results of research. They have meaning in themselves; the dimension of meaning-in-relation can be added. Such gains cannot be achieved just by increasing the length of bibliographies. Of greater importance is the working out of postulates and hypotheses, and the relation of hypotheses to postulates and criteria of adequacy, in the research design.

Another major gain may be in economy. Studies of very limited scope may gain in significance by being related to a broader system of postulates and hypotheses. The relationship may make it worthwhile to undertake the kind of research that most guidance and personnel workers can undertake: the analysis of single factors affecting students at particular institutions. If the logical structure is adequate, it may be possible to get more meaning out of a very narrowly limited study. We may be able to check the applicability of certain postulates, as well as to validate predictive measures and define trends. Thus we can contribute to knowledge of more general value, but only if we fit our patterns of research to a more comprehensive structure of multivariate analysis.

Another gain in economy comes from the elimination of dead-end studies from broader research designs. Where a staff is engaged in continuous research, a structured multivariate design makes it possible to eliminate steps most likely to prove null. For example, at Hampton Institute, a long-term study of achievement has been designed, involving six major postulates, four hypotheses, and nine empirical studies. The design has been set in such a way that results in any given step indicate the next step in sequence. Null results point to one step, positive results to another. The first step involved the examination of bimodalities in available data relating to achievement, and it was hypothesized that these bimodalities were sex-related. Distinct differences between men and women were found. This result eliminated the necessity of testing other hypotheses about factors related to differences in achievement, such as good and poor preparation, or over- and under-achievement. Two steps were thus eliminated, and the program moved on to the investigation of possible sex-related differences between factual and conceptual elements in subjects mastered. Results were null. The next indicated step therefore was the study of "life space" factors that might affect men and women students in different ways—access to college resources, use of community resources, relations to faculty, student activity participation and interest, and the like.

This does not mean that subject-matter elements are not regarded as worth investigating, but that in this particular design, the decision could be made in advance to follow the lead of the first significant results, explore their implications in depth, duration, and extent, and still draw some useful conclusions about related elements of the design. This self-selecting feature makes a large-scale program feasible for a small staff functioning without research funds and yields maximum return for limited investment. As few as four or as many as nine steps could be carried out; still all the hypotheses and postulates could be related to the procedure.

With a structured multivariate design, it may be possible for guidance and personnel workers to do more research, without holding back because of limitations of scope and resources. It may make it possible to derive more meaning, in both theoretical and practical terms, from research already com-

pleted. And it certainly may make for greater economy of effort and expense in obtaining significant results.

Such a structure is at least implicit, if not actively in use, in various colleges and universities. It is a basic principle of the Cooperative Research Program of the U. S. Office of Education. It can be further applied in the field, by colleges, departments and staffs, or by professional organizations. And it may be most useful of all to individual workers in using research to further their professional development. However, it will ultimately have to be developed through discussion in professional groups directed toward the formulation by consensus of clearly defined postulates and criteria of adequacy. Perhaps discussion of the need for more research could for the time being yield to the discussion of our basic assumptions and concepts as a framework for the formulation of research design and the interpretation of results.

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THE GERONTOLOGIST—NEW QUARTERLY TO DEAL WITH AGING

The Gerontologist is the title of a new quarterly journal designed to deal comprehensively with the field of aging. Published by the Gerontological Society, Inc., the first issue appeared in March, 1961. The publishers intend to present papers by outstanding authorities on the medical-biological and social science aspects of gerontology and have recruited an editorial board from three continents. Planning world-wide coverage, *The Gerontologist* will feature theoretical articles, review papers, historical contributions, and accounts of current projects on aging.

Subscription information may be obtained from the Gerontological Society, Inc., 660 S. Kingshighway Boulevard, St. Louis 10, Missouri.

School Guidance:

A Four-Dimensional Model

ROBERT H. MATHEWSON

THIS IS a crucial time in the history of the guidance movement. Perhaps there has never been a more critical period than the one we are now in. Not even the challenges of the great depression, nor those during World War II and its aftermath, approach in educational or social significance those we now confront. The main reason for this is that guidance, as a universal process in American education, is in the spotlight—and on the spot—to a far greater extent than it has ever been before. In fact, it is perhaps not too much to say that it is everywhere "on trial."

At a time when the social consequences of guidance are being stressed to an unprecedented extent, several strategies of guidance practice are competing for the privilege of becoming the dominant or prevailing practice of guidance in American education. How are we to judge these various strategies?

In attempting to assess current (and perhaps even future) strategies of guidance in schools,[1] we may consider four common dimensions that characterize differing strategies. Between the two extremes of each dimension, one may take a professional position as to philosophy and practice, and when this is designated on each dimension, a "profile" may be traced depicting an overall set of beliefs and practices that we may call a strategy. There are, of course, additional dimensions than the ones described below but these four are of central significance and constitute a kind of pattern that may be perceived as a "four-dimensional world of guidance."

These dimensions will now be described, positions at the extremes of each will be identified, and an attempt will be made to assess two or three current strategies of guidance in terms of the designated dimensions.

Four Dimensions in Guidance Practice

Classroom-centered—Specialized. At one end of the axis, the guidance process is conceived as being centered almost wholly in the classroom, with only occasional need for calling in a specialist. At the other end, the guidance process is conceived as being conducted by trained professional specialists dealing with needs and problems of psychological adjustment or educational-vocational choice with only supplementary contributory help from teachers.

Self-Integrative—Prescriptive. At one pole of this dimension it is assumed that personal percepts and constructs about current adjustments and future prospects of the individual can be formed and these can be integrated into an effective self-definition and self-identity by the individual himself over a period of time with little or no outside help. At the other extreme, reliance may be placed entirely, or almost so, on rather prescriptive or highly recommendatory forms of guidance at decision-points, problem-points, or crisis-points in the career of the individual. In the one instance, maximal capacity for self-appraisal, self-integration, and consequent choice is assumed and at the other, minimal.

Personal—Social. At the personal end of

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[1] There will, of course, be many "strategies" of guidance in other social and cultural institutional media than schools.

this dimension, concern will be felt for the satisfaction of unique individual needs and purposes through provision of special means for individual expression and experience, for understanding the individual in his unique terms, for evaluating and interpreting a unique personal pattern, and for aiding each individual to relate his characteristics knowingly to appropriate opportunities and social demands. At the social pole, concern may be almost exclusively for social and institutional needs, demands and consequences. Also, the consideration of whether short-term or long-term needs are paramount may be involved at either end. In the one instance, it may be a short-term question of meeting currently troublesome problems of personal maladjustment as against the long-term development of individual potentiality to meet recurrent problems self-reliantly. At the other end, short-term economic needs may be given more weight than long-term socio-cultural outcomes.

Subjective—Objective. At the subjective extreme, attention is directed toward psychological events inside the pupil having to do with self-defining and self-conceptualizing processes while at the other extreme, little or no real attention may be given to subjective processes. Guidance practice may be directed rather toward the evaluation and interpretation of objective data of all kinds extracted from the results of tests, ratings, achievement assessments, etc. In the one case, faith will reside in a continuous and systematic conscious learning process looking toward greater self-understanding and control, and, conversely, chief dependence will be placed in the ability of the professional specialist to interpret data from samplings of rated or tested performance and to base predictive recommendations upon such interpretation.

It will be obvious that all of these dimensions are interrelated, also, that there are gradations between the extremes.

We may now be in a position to try out some existing strategies of guidance on our model to find out whether or not these can readily be depicted upon it. For illustrative purposes, let us choose two.

Strategies of Guidance Illustrated

A. *Selective-distributive strategy.* Pivoting around the work of the specialist this strategy will embrace the theoretical positions and associated practices on the right-hand poles of our dimensions. This strategy will be characterized by a concentration upon the use of objective data and will be commonly focused upon evaluations and recommendations at critical points of decision where placement into one group or another may chiefly depend upon interpretations made by the counseling specialist with recommendations conveyed to administrators, students, and parents for appropriate decisions by them. Concern in this strategy will be largely for institutional or social ends, such as: placement in appropriate institutions of higher learning according to the demands of such institutions or to vocational guidance of a rather directive character to meet national manpower requirements. Since highly specialized forms of training and a higher degree of professional responsibility will be involved in the evaluation and interpretation of objective data for the fulfillment of this strategy's purposes, it will be essential to employ specialized workers in the most economical way for such tasks, thus reverting to the necessity of providing such service at those critical decision-points where it may be most usefully applied.

Underlying Assumptions: Perhaps the basic assumption of this strategy is that individuals cannot learn about themselves, accept themselves, and control their choices and behavior to any significant degree but rather choose and act on the basis of deep-seated traits which are the product of inborn temperament plus experiential conditioning. Years ago, the belief was expressed that self-appraisals are highly inaccurate and cannot be counted upon for guidance purposes. This belief is still held by distributive strategists. The directive or distributive guidance worker may also disbelieve that many individuals will consciously direct their choices for social ends but will invariably seek personal objectives that may or may not relate in collective summation

to social needs or requirements. Hence, it becomes necessary to appraise individuals scientifically and socio-comparatively, to interpret such appraisals to them as recommendations, and, where essential for social objectives, to select and direct individuals into appropriate channels.

Critique: Critics of this strategy will point to the fact that it leaves out many considerations reflected in the areas of the model which it neglects. Functionally, individual freedom of choice and power of self-direction may be at a minimum in this strategy; in the nomothetic patterns of measurement, important idiosyncratic factors may be overlooked; although the individual (and his parents) may "choose" to follow recommendations, this may not represent any real assimilation of meanings on the part of the counselee nor may there result any acquired ability to meet similar future problems. While objective data relating to level of intelligence and other measurable factors may be "satisfied" through the recommendations, other important factors in the situation, such as individual motivation and values may not be taken into account, and this oversight may later destroy the "validity" of any placement made on a limited recommendatory basis.

Yet a number of good characteristics must be recognized in this strategy: its stress on the need for objective data; on the usefulness of socio-comparative data; on the importance of social consequences; on the need for individual assistance at critical decision-points; and for professional and specialized services at such points.

B. Classroom-centered strategy. Pivoting around the activities of the classroom and teacher, this strategy is characterized by strong belief in the ability of the individual pupil to acquire his own meanings from a multitude of general education experiences, to relate these to his individual needs, and to integrate them into a suitable outlook and behavioral pattern. Individualized attention to personal needs may be given by the classroom teacher as required, and classroom activities may even be adapted to individual requirements, but the generally prevailing stress will be upon the acquirement of academic knowledge and the maintenance of academic progress. The anticipation will be that individual percepts and constructs bearing upon current adjustment and eventual educational and vocational direction and decision will be gradually and indirectly formed through self-interpreted school experiences. Occasionally, the aid of specialists may be needed in assisting with problems of behavior and academic disability as well as in the provision of information to teachers about individual characteristics but in the main the classroom teacher may be expected to provide all the guidance required. When it comes time for deciding upon a high school curriculum or upon "choice of college" for those few individuals who "may not know their own minds" in these respects, the guidance counselor may be counted upon for specialized assistance.

Underlying Assumption: One assumption influencing this strategy is that all pupils do not have problems requiring guidance. To the extent that some may require occasional information or personal evaluation, this may be done on a commonsense basis by the classroom teacher. In a small minority of cases more severe problems may be referred to the specialist. Thus, the guidance counselor in this strategy may become a resource consultant, a coordinator of activities in guidance, and a referral agent. Underlying this viewpoint may be the unexpressed belief that favorable psychological climates pervade classroom practice and exert an over-all conditioning force from which many desirable guidance outcomes may be derived. Also, imbuing this strategy may be the idea that the individual's "natural" mental level and general educational achievement and, indeed, his socio-economic status and circumstances as well, will be important determining factors at points of decision about career and career training. Up to these points, individuals may be encouraged to do their best academically and, if sufficiently interested, can be helped by encouragement and information from teachers. It is likely that an unspoken and perhaps un-

formulated assumption by proponents of this strategy is the idea that it "is not the school's business" to invade subjective realms in order to help each individual in the formation of a self-identity by means of deliberate and systematic procedures.

Critique: It may be pointed out that this strategy, at best, may lead only to incidental and episodic concern with important outcomes on the part of every child. Objectives like the formation of an educational-vocational outlook and plan (sooner or later demanded of every student) may not get systematic attention in this strategy. Also it may be asserted that Strategy B will deal only with the overt problems of a minority of school children and youth—mostly behavioral or academic problems—but occasionally, perhaps, a question about information. Many needs for personal guidance, educational orientation, self-definition, and vocational development may go unmet.

Still we must recognize under current conditions that if any cumulative and day-by-day guidance is to be done, it will have to be conducted by classroom teachers in most schools. Also, a laissez-faire strategy of this type certainly leaves maximum freedom for the individual to pursue untrammeled his own bent although it may also mean much wasted individual potentiality, unrecognized and undeveloped.

A Third Strategy

Recognizing that values are present on all the depicted dimensions and assuming that these may be fulfilled by occupying middle-ground positions on all of them, a policy of "coordinative team-work" may be set forth. All the advantages of classroom guidance practice plus those attributable to the guidance specialist are sought. In such a strategy may be discerned an organizational emphasis on "core programs" or "homeroom guidance," together with special provision for advisory guidance at decision or problem-points. But a coordinative team-process is difficult to coordinate successfully and may be a team-process only on paper. Also no over-all function of coordination can magically produce outcomes if the underlying processes for the fulfillment of these outcomes are not there in the first place. Because it may lack focus, or an effective structural pivot, the activities of guidance in this strategy may be diffused and dispersed. Attempted by everybody, guidance may be accomplished by nobody. Organizational structure may be very weak and amorphous; teachers may not be co-operative. Personal aims and needs may be largely overlooked in this strategy, even though concern for them may be professed. Such coordination as exists may be commonly directed at academic or institutional ends because there is no conception of personal developmental possibilities.

Is an Effective Strategy Possible?

One of the great hindrances to a resolution of our uncertainties has been the common limitations of our perceptions as to what constitutes education or guidance. The possibility of doing anything about the systematic development of individual subjective outlooks and controls rarely occurs. Or, if it does, it is considered "dangerous." But now the need arises for paying more attention to social consequences in the guidance process and, at the same time, for preserving individual freedom. The imperative need emerges for maximum development of all human potentialities in our democracy, requiring continuous and systematic attention to subjective percepts and concepts of the individual, while preserving and enhancing personal integrity and assisting each pupil in the development of a suitable, feasible, and socially useful (if not creative) life outlook.

A serious current question is whether it is possible in most American schools to consider practicable procedures for providing a form of guidance which will be professional in character rather than amateurish and which will capitalize upon the fact that the guidance process can be influential in education for self-understanding and self-direction over the span of 10 to 12 years that most American children now spend in school.

What seems desirable in this connection is a truly developmental form of guidance

[1]. Research findings as well as the dictates of field experience have confirmed the validity of the need for developmental guidance [2–4]. Whether the school culture, or the community culture for that matter, will permit developmental guidance of professional quality is the central question.

It may be a long time before American education is ready to support a truly effective kind of developmental guidance. Meanwhile, a fairly sizable number of schools with better than average guidance programs may be much closer to a developmental form of guidance than they realize. The following means of implementing a developmental strategy of guidance in schools today may be considered:

1. Seek more *pupil involvement* in their own guidance through specially devised instruments and procedures on all grade levels.

2. Through *cumulative, coordinated and articulated procedures* from grade to grade, attempt to build a growing self-understanding and direction on the part of each pupil.

3. By means of individual observation and counseling at *evaluation check-points* strategically placed along the grades, assess each individual's progress in the development of more mature educational, vocational, and personal-social outlooks.

4. Seek greater cohesiveness in organization by means of a guidance structure which makes the guidance specialist a *pivot* for the coordination of activities among a limited group of pupils, cooperating very closely with teachers and parents in the same block of students. Assign *group work* as well as individual consultative functions to this same counselor.

5. Provide at necessary decision-points, a form of *advisory guidance* which will capitalize upon increments of self-understanding formed during the cumulative guidance process which is evaluated at the check-points previously mentioned.

6. Through *school-community experiences* such as cooperative work-study, occupational exploration, occupational group conferences, parent orientation, plus essential individualized counseling, attempt to improve understandings of self-situational relations on the part of more pupils.

Ultimately, if a developmental process is perfected, it may be possible to include the subjective dimension to a significant extent in the strategy of guidance prevailing in American education.

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PSYCHO-SOCIAL STUDY SECTION SCREENS OVR GRANT REQUESTS

The recently formed Psycho-Social Study Section, named by the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, HEW, to provide preliminary screening of applications for OVR research and demonstration grants in the areas of psychology and social work, held its first meeting in Washington in January. Fourteen applications in these fields were considered for recommendation to the National Advisory Council of OVR which passes on all research and demonstration grants. Members of the Study Section are: Samuel A. Kirk, Theodora M. Abel, Edward S. Bordin, John G. Darley, Renee Fox, Victor Raimy, Edward Joseph Shoben, Jr., William M. Usdane, and Mary E. Macdonald. Dr. Joan Criswell has assumed the duties of Executive Secretary of the Study Section and will answer inquiries about future projects in these areas.

Predicting S.V.I.B. Profiles of High Ability Male Arts College Freshmen

RICHARD R. STEPHENSON

A QUESTION of concern to every college counselor is whether or not characteristic Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) profiles differentiate those high ability students who are likely to remain with their expressed educational-vocational objectives from those who are likely to change such expressions. In a more general sense, we are asking what is the extent of agreement between inventoried and expressed vocational interests for these groups. In the present investigation, expressed vocational interests were made synonymous with manifest vocational interests. Thus, greater stability was forced on such expressions, and thus the study was concurrently a study of agreement or disagreement among all three types of vocational interests.

Sample

The sample consisted of high ability male matriculants in the College of Science, Literature, and the Arts (Arts College) of the University of Minnesota in the fall quarter, 1958. Students are admitted to the Arts College on the basis of their College Aptitude Rating (CAR), which is the arithmetic mean of their percentile rank on a measure of academic aptitude, the ACE Psychological Examination, and of their percentile rank in their high school graduation classes.[1] In the present study, "high ability" was defined as having a CAR of 90 or above. A total of 13 per cent of all Arts College male matriculants fell in this category. Of these, 92 per cent, or 133 *S*'s, were included in the present study. Those excluded were excluded for a variety of reasons apparently unrelated to the present research; for example, permanent physical disability. The median and modal age of the group was 18.33 years, with a range from 17.25 to 19.5 years.

Registration Behaviors

The Arts College is on the quarter system, the first registration period for the sample group being for the fall quarter, 1958. At this time the following sample subgroups were formed, based on each *S*'s required registration declaration:

Choice Group: All *S*'s in this group declared an educational-vocational objective. An adviser's approval of the student's program of courses, secured only after individual conference, was taken as evidence that the courses selected were in fact leading to the objective indicated. This group numbered 93 students or 70 per cent of the total sample.

Undecided Group: *S*'s in this group did not declare an educational-vocational objective. These *S*'s categorized themselves as "undecided." Again, the adviser's signature was evidence that these *S*'s were truly undecided as to educational-vocational objective. This group numbered 40 students or 30 per cent of the total sample.

The *second* registration period for the total group was for the winter quarter, 1959, and occured approximately three months after the initial registration. Again, all 133 *S*'s had to express their educational-vocational objectives. At this time the following subgroups were identified:

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This paper is based upon the author's doctoral dissertation completed in 1959 under the direction of Professor Donald G. Paterson.

[1] While statisticians must shudder at the method used to compute a CAR, there is evidence [4] that the CAR is a valid predictor of academic success or failure at all CAR levels in this Arts College.

Choose-Remain: Included here were those *S*'s who initially declared a specific objective and who, at this second registration, elected to remain with their first choice. (N = 68 or 51 per cent of the total sample.)

Choose-Change: Included here were those *S*'s who initially declared a specific objective but who, at this second registration, changed to a different objective. (N = 25 or 19 per cent of the total sample.)

Undecided-Remain: Included here were those *S*'s who were initially undecided and who remained undecided. (N = 20 or 15 per cent of the total sample.)

Undecided-Choose: Included here were those *S*'s who had initially declared that they were undecided but who, at this second registration, did choose an educational-vocational goal. (N = 20 or 15 per cent of the total sample.)

Replication on a group of 106 similar matriculants in the fall quarter, 1957, revealed that the above groupings are typical of Arts College high ability males. (In the 1957 group there were, however, two Choose-Undecided students.)

Method

SVIB's were administered prior to the actual registration conferences but were not used by the student's faculty advisers. Faculty advisers were self-selected by indicating their desire to participate in an advisory program for high ability students. They were experienced faculty advisers but were not psychologists nor were they trained in the use of psychological measuring instruments. They were well qualified to select courses of study appropriate to an educational-vocational choice expressed by an *S*. None of the *S*'s received vocational counseling at the Student Counseling Bureau before or during the study. The extent of incidental counseling, if any, was not determined.

Since the subgroups were formed by the manner in which the *S* did something about his expressed or claimed vocational interests, and since the method ensured that he *was* doing something about these expressions, it is felt that manifest and expressed vocational interests have been effectively combined. ("Undecideds" were meeting Arts College graduation requirements which necessitate an exposure to general areas, *e.g.*, Social Sciences, but which have latitude for individual expression both between and within general areas. Presumably, these *S*'s were searching for a satisfying goal within an area of general interest.)

The standard Hankes Report Form for the SVIB, with 45 occupational interest scales and 11 occupational interest groups, was used. Subjects' educational-vocational majors were in all cases equatable with both an SVIB occupational scale and, of course, with an SVIB occupational interest group. Intensity of interest-group interest was ascertained by a manner similar to Darley's 1941 schema [*1*], but with a modification that ensured high reclassification reliability [*4*]. The major concern of the investigation was with Primary interest patterns. Of secondary concern were SVIB letter grade ratings on individual occupational scales. The specific hypotheses tested will better indicate the design than will extended discussion.

Hypotheses

1. There are no differences in proportions of persons having Primary interest patterns between the Choice and the Undecided groups.
2. Choose-Remain *S*'s have a single Primary interest pattern and have registered for a goal consonant with that Primary.
3. Choose-Change *S*'s have initially registered for a goal not consonant with a Primary interest pattern but change to a goal consonant with one.
4. Undecided-Remain *S*'s have no Primary interest patterns.
5. Undecided-Choose *S*'s have Multiple Primary interest patterns and at the second registration period select a goal consonant with one of those Primaries.

Major Findings

Each of the above hypotheses was tested with a simple Chi-square test (common dis-

tributions or fourfold). Double hypotheses were tested for each part separately. In all cases the hypotheses were accepted or rejected at a high level of confidence, the actual Chi-square p levels ranging from 0.80 to 0.30. The findings were that:

1. There were no significant differences in proportions of Primary interest patterns between Choice group *S*'s and Undecided group *S*'s.

2. Choose-Remain *S*'s had proportionately the same number of single Primary interest patterns as did any other subgroup and did not register for goals consonant with that Primary in proportions significantly greater than was true for any other subgroup.

3. Choose-Change *S*'s did not differ significantly between their "Choose" and their "Change" registrations in terms of consonance between Primary interest pattern and educational-vocational goal and in neither registration were they significantly different from the members of any other subgroup in this respect.

4. Undecided-Remain *S*'s had proportionately the same number of single Primary interest patterns as did any other subgroup. (This was tested with the second hypothesis stated above.)

5. Undecided-Choose *S*'s had proportionately the same number of Multiple Primary interest patterns as did the members of any other subgroup and were no more consonant in their second registration, in terms of educational-vocational goal agreeing with Primary interest pattern, than were the members of any other subgroup.

Minor Findings

1. The above hypotheses were all restated in terms of A-letter grade ratings on SVIB occupational interest scales and again tested. The results of these tests, comparing every subgroup with every other subgroup, may be summarized by saying that the resulting probability values were even higher than was true for the interest pattern findings and were in all cases interpreted as being indicative of chance variation only.

2. All letter grade ratings were distributed randomly over all registration subgroups.

3. There was an average of 4.38 A-letter grade ratings per *S* but less than one-half of the *S*'s were registered for goals consonant with an A-letter grade (the exact proportion depending upon both the subgroup investigated and the registration period).

4. There was an average of 1.23 Primary interest patterns per *S* and approximately one-half of these *S*'s were registered for goals consonant with an SVIB Primary interest pattern (again the exact proportion depended upon both the subgroup and the registration period).

5. The *S*'s who were pursuing curricula consonant with either an SVIB Primary interest pattern or an SVIB A-letter grade were randomly distributed over the four registration subgroups.

6. The hypotheses of no difference in proportions of Secondary and of Reject interest patterns between Choice group *S*'s and Undecided group *S*'s were both accepted ($p >$ 0.30).

Discussion

On the basis of a strict expectancy ratio we should certainly not expect to find approximately 50 per cent of these *S*'s enrolled in curricula consonant with either an A-letter grade (the modal score for all *S*'s over all occupations was a "score" in the chance range) nor with a Primary interest pattern (the least frequently appearing pattern was Primary). Perhaps, then, the explanation for this study's essentially negative findings is to be found in Strong's observation that to expect that all members of an occupational group get an A rating on the corresponding occupational scale would be "wonderful if true but would mean that a new sample would score much higher than the criterion group" [*5*].

An alternative explanation may be that the SVIB is not as valid in terms of short term criteria as it is in terms of longer range criteria, such as occupation engaged in 14 or 18 years later [*3*, *5*]. However, McArthur's and Strong's long-range evidence,

coupled with the present findings, seems to question the value of a high ability Freshmen Advisory Service wherein the assumptions are made that (a) the initially expressed educational-vocational choices of the majority of high ability male students have long-range, world-of-work validity, and (b) those students who do not change curricular orientations have chosen more wisely in the sense that they are truly headed in the direction of their eventual occupational goal.

While the present study encompasses a relatively short period of time, the controls for age, ability level, and sex lend some weight to the findings. The design implicitly assumes that the student's first exposure to college, his first academic quarter here, will be his most traumatic, which will in turn be reflected in an attempt to secure a more satisfying educational-vocational orientation. This assumption, which has a degree of face validity, can be verified only by a longitudinal study on high ability males. Relevant here, however, is Dyer's finding that, in general, college work "does prepare (one) for the vocation followed for 10 years after graduation" [2].

In conclusion, it would seem that academic advising for high ability male students requires more than experienced and interested faculty advisers and more than complete reliance on the expressed choices of these students. Considering the range of "unused" interests found with the present sample, using the SVIB, it would seem necessary for such an advisory program to utilize an objective vocational interest inventory to supply the framework within which the students will explore.

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NEW MEXICO PILOT PROGRAM IN COUNSELING GIFTED STUDENTS

"Operation Future" is the title of a pilot program for the counseling and guidance of superior students in New Mexico high schools that is being established by the Guidance and Personnel Services Division of the State Department of Education. Students in the upper 10 per cent of their high school class (10th and 11th grades) will be selected by their faculty for additional counseling, testing, information related to careers, scholarships, and future opportunities. This program will be established primarily for the purpose of carrying out intensive study of the same individuals over a period of years. The Division intends to cooperate with colleges and universities, schools and parents in conducting research on methods for the discovery and development of youth of superior intellectual promise in any field of study. The ultimate goal is to demonstrate what can be done to conserve and develop human resources, specifically, the identification and development of unusual potential from the ninth grade through college.

Effects of Short- and Long-Term Developmental Reading Courses Upon S.A.T. Verbal Scores

NATHANIEL J. PALLONE

Of prime consideration in the counseling of pre-college students today is the battery administered by the Educational Testing Service for the College Entrance Examination Board, now in use at some 260 of the nation's leading colleges (and bidding fair to loom even larger as a decisive factor in college admissions). Although the structure and use of the College Board battery has often been questioned, and not without good cause [2, 3], College Board Examinations, especially the two-part Scholastic Aptitude Test, have become, as every secondary school counselor knows, the vestibule through which must pass those who wish to enter the professions.

Because of various pressures exerted upon school administrators, many schools with college preparatory programs have begun to gaze fondly upon the College Board battery as the be all and end all of secondary education. Public and private schools have adopted various specific methods, often divorced from studies in the regular school curriculum, of "preparing" students for College Board tests. Reports of the results of these methods, published in the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* and elsewhere, have generally indicated less than satisfying outcomes.

But most of these methods have fallen into the "coaching" category, in which students are repeatedly exposed to teacher-constructed tests which contain items assumed, on face validity, to be similar to those in the College Board battery. *Usually no instruction for improvement in skills presumably measured* by the CEEB battery is included in the "coaching" approaches. Published reports have indicated insignificant mean gains [1].

As a counselor and teacher in an independent preparatory school for boys, the writer became involved in the problems presented by the use of College Board tests, set against the complexus of aspirations of students, parents, and administrators. His particular interest lay in the Verbal section of the Scholastic Aptitude Test. In the school in question, various "coaching" methods had been tried in order to improve scores so that they in some degree matched what the faculty considered to be characteristic of the individual student's demonstrated capabilities, but these had substantially the same unsatisfactory results as studies mentioned earlier. It was obvious that *growth in skills* measured by the SAT-V was not aided by these methods.

An informal analysis of sample items from the SAT-V supplied by ETS indicated that this test was basically a measure of skills in reading comprehension and word usage. (Scores on a test of reading ability, the ETS Cooperative Reading Test, and the SAT-V correlated positively at 0.73 for students in the pilot program, discussed below.) Speed does not appear to be a factor of major importance in the SAT-V, a "power" test. To improve these skills, not "coaching" methods, but instruction of a developmental nature in reading and vocabulary skills was indicated. Improvement in scores could be expected only if the basic skills

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measured by the test were first strengthened. Though considerable literature has dealt with "coaching" methods, there seems to have been no discussion of the relation of developmental reading courses to SAT-V scores.

It was decided to undertake a *developmental* reading program for students in their final year of pre-college work, including a large number of high school graduates who were completing a year of post-high school study in preparation for entrance into the U. S. government academies. In the program, emphasis was placed upon group instruction, based on exercises in college-level reading manuals, supplemented by intensive practice in using various Science Research Associates reading materials, reading films, and tachistoscopic devices, usually on an individual basis.

Short-Term Program

Twenty-plus students participated in a pilot program in the summer of 1959. Instruction was based largely upon the activities in the Horace Judson-Kenneth Baldridge manual, *The Techniques of Reading*, designed for college and adult groups. Supplementary materials were teacher-prepared speed and comprehension exercises and vocabulary materials. Normal reading skills, intensive reading, special skills such as skimming and critical reading, and brief analysis of typical "verbal analogies" were covered in the six-week, 90-minute, daily program. Group instruction was supplemented by individual practice with SRA Reading Laboratory materials and reading rate accelerators.

Students were tested at the beginning and termination of the course on parallel forms of the ETS Cooperative Reading Test. Approximately 10 days after the completion of the course, they underwent the August SAT-V, and these scores were compared with scores obtained in March, 1959. In each case, significant gains appeared, as indicated in Tables 1 and 2. It is surmised that these gains are attributable to real and measurable improvement in reading skills as an effect of the developmental program. No consideration, however, could be given to growth by "natural means" between March and June, when the course began.

TABLE 1

Mean Improvement in Reading—Short-Term Program—Centiles
(Educational Records Bureau Private School Norms)

	Pre-Test	*Re-Test*	*Gain*
Mean	60	79.4	19.4
Median	59	82	23
Range	18–97	36–99	7–63

TABLE 2

Improvement in College Board Sat-V Scores—Short-Term Program

	March, 1959	*August, 1959*	*Gain*
Mean	472	570	98.3
Median	462	591	129
Range	317–712	397–702	−10–242

As had been expected, those who initially had scored below the national SAT-V median of 500 showed greater improvement than those whose scores initially were relatively high. Since all the members of the group fell into the "academically talented" area according to the results of the Otis test of mental ability, this result could be foreseen. The most spectacular gains, for example, were made by a student with high intelligence who had previously attended a semi-rural school in a southern state with limited library facilities. Forced to marshal his potential, he jumped from the 18th to the 81st centiles and gained 159 in his SAT-V scores. Student reaction agreed that the course had provided them with a method of attack applicable to test items dealing with reading materials as well as to intensive reading for study. They indicated that they had approached the SAT-V in a more systematic fashion as a result of their sharpened awareness to organize reading skills effectively.

Long-Term Program

The long-term developmental program

ran from September, 1959, to March, 1960, meeting daily for 50 minutes. The class manual, Spache and Berg's *Art of Efficient Reading*, was supplemented by the SRA Reading Laboratory IV-A (College Prep Edition), the SRA Reading for Understanding Kit, the Iowa University Reading Films, teacher-made vocabulary materials, rate accelerators, and tachistoscopic devices. In all, nearly 100 students completed the course, including those who had also participated in the short-term program. For the first few weeks, students received brief instruction in formal logic to enable them to draw proper and critical inferences. Considerable attention was paid to methods of analyzing verbal analogies and other types of verbal problems. In general, the approach resembled the short-term program, but there was greater depth and intensity of coverage. The course was counted as a half-unit of English credit, and grades were given on the basis of teacher-made tests.

At the end of the course, significant gains were shown by (a) those who had participated in the long-term program and (b) by those who had taken both programs, when March, 1960, SAT-V scores were compared with scores of a year earlier. Normal expectations in gains during the final secondary year are about 35 points in SAT-V, while the two groups gained 109 and 121.9 respectively, considerably higher than predications of College Board officials would have one expect.

Again, students initially toward the upper end of the scale tended to show considerably less improvement in scores than those below the national median. Two students, whose initial scores were well toward the upper end, sustained sizable "losses," possibly due to chance influences in the testing situation.

Short-Term Plus Long-Term Program

Since the 20 plus students who had participated in the pilot program also participated in the long-term program, and since their scores were not tallied in TABLE 3, it is possible to compare the effects of the short-term program with those of the long-term program. Gains in scores have been presented in TABLE 2. It is evident that some students reach a sort of "saturation level," after which little or no further gains can be expected. One student, for example, scored 362 in March, 1959, 504 in August, 1959, and 514 in March, 1960. His March, 1960, score *seems* to represent a gain in skill over a year period, but this improvement actually occurred during a two-month period of rapid learning, after which he made negligible gains.

TABLE 3

Improvements in College Board Scores—Long-Term Program

	March, 1959	*March, 1960*	*Gain*
Mean	488	572	109
Median	496	574	78
Range	372–726	403–754	−63–288

TABLE 4

Improvement in Sat-V Scores—Long-Term Plus Short-Term

	March, 1959	*March, 1960*	*Gain*
Mean	472	594	121.9
Median	462	588	126
Range	317–712	438–799	2–202

Conclusions

No effort was made to hold constant the intelligence factor in this study, since, by virtue of the selective admissions policy of the particular school, all students must clearly fall into the "academically talented" group (Otis IQ of 115+) in order to gain admission. It is not likely that this policy shall be changed, but the conclusions of this study will have relevance only for selected student populations.

The results of this study indicate a high relation between reading skills and SAT-V scores. Reading development programs might be expected to produce improved SAT-V scores as a by-product, given a selective population in which there is under-

achievement in reading. The most effective of the programs followed by this writer was the short-term course followed by the long-term course, for students following this plan showed a mean improvement of 122 points, while those following (rather, considered as following) the short-term program alone improved 98 points, and those following the long-term program alone improved a mean 109 points. No attempt has been made to determine the factors which influenced a greater improvement in the long-term program, but the point difference could probably be attributed to longer periods of reading practice, to the use of reading films, to the introduction of formal logic into the program, or to any possible combination of these items.

There is also evidence that some students reach a saturation level fairly early, possibly within an initial period in which they, typically, grasp new methods quickly, then remain somewhat stable.

If one accepts the notion that the guidance specialist in the school is interested in both attitudes and situations and that he is often properly manipulative of situations (while the psychological counselor concerns himself with attitudes alone), it seems very possible that guidance personnel will be called upon more and more to assist in the structuring of programs, informal courses, and the like designed to sharpen student's skills in areas tested by college admissions batteries.

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THE GUIDANCE COUNSELOR IN THE CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Quality Through New Directions, the comprehensive 1960 annual report by the General Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, includes in a discussion of its educational personnel needs the following comment on the guidance worker.

> One of the areas in which we feel we need a higher percentage of skilled workers on our staff in order to help each child reach his maximum potential is that of *guidance*. Every high school, for some years, has had at least three full-time guidance counselors, in addition, many schools have had a number of teachers assigned to guidance service on a part-time basis. As of this year, 71 additional full-time counselors were approved. The assignment of these counselors will permit the release of teachers skilled in teaching mathematics, science, and the like, to teach in these areas; and at the same time it will place appropriately trained teachers in the counseling positions. The over-all counselor-student ratio has been reduced materially. Additional supervisors have been assigned to assist with the program. Guidance is of basic significance in any educational program that endeavors to reach the individual (pages 14 & 15).

Extra-Measurement Use of Tests in Counseling

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The use of tests for purposes of measurement has been extensively investigated over a number of decades. During and following World War I, tests came into extensive service for population description and comparison, in the assessment of a variety of traits. Then, and most importantly, measurement devices were applied to problems of placement and prediction. From their application in mass terms, instruments were developed which had validity and reliability to a degree commensurate with their utilization for selection, placement, and counseling of the *individual*. Testing became a fundamental technique for processes of educational and vocational counseling and constituted a major step forward from vocational guidance based primarily upon occupational information.

In the current status of the field of educational and vocational counseling, testing is an integral and indispensable technique. What part does it play? Are only tests which have acceptably high levels of validity and reliability, and for which probabilities can be adequately calculated, of value to individuals who are faced with educational and vocational choices and decisions? Without in any sense gainsaying the value of quantification and the relation of individual scores to normative standards, the contribution of standardized tests to the counseling process must be viewed qualitatively to appreciate their full yield. There are three contributions in particular which may be emphasized, although to the resourceful counseling psychologist, this list should not be considered exhaustive. The three areas under consideration here might be called clinical diagnosis, self-assessment, and interactive facilitation, and represent the values directly to the counselor, to the counselee, and to the interaction between them.

Before describing the three primary extra-measurement uses of tests in counseling, it might be well to indicate for whom these uses are appropriate. The interpretation of test results, either quantitative or qualitative findings, as has been elsewhere indicated, is a highly skilled activity of the fully qualified, experienced clinical or counseling psychologist. The counselor, teacher-counselor, or dean is commonly dependent upon a school psychologist or consulting clinical or counseling psychologist for evaluation of test data. An article by the staff of the University of Maryland Counseling Center, "A Check-List for Recording Test-Taking Behavior" [*1*], attempts to study the reliability of observations of such behavior. It shows how complicated and difficult making such observations can be. Because of the inherent difficulty in soundly interpreting behavior on tests or in a test-taking situation, such reports must be regarded as tentative within counseling and not fully accepted until proven out in the counseling process. Of the extra-measurement use of tests subsequently delineated, *Clinical Diagnosis* is the prerogative of the clinical and/or counseling psychologist whose analysis may be of assistance to the counselor; *Self-Assessment* is an area open to all counselors who are either competent with counseling techniques or who have the good judgment and restraint to permit a counselee to work out his problems himself to the full extent of his capacity!; *Interactive Facilitation* again applies to the use of test data by competent counselors.

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Clinical Diagnosis. This is undoubtedly the best known and the most common extra-measurement use of tests in both clinical and counseling practice. We are concerned here with observation of test-taking behavior, of intellectual and emotional functioning, and of demonstrated habits and attitudes. From such observations, conclusions can be obtained by the clinician for habitual and characteristic performance. The presentation of a standard situation gives unique opportunity to observe individual modes of reaction, deviations from usual behavior, and particular trends and quality of intellectual and emotional functioning. Usually tests implicated for this purpose are those which are individually administered, allowing for intensive observation of a sample of some type of performance. On mental ability tests, kind of approach to mental tasks is demonstrated, *i.e.*, trial and error, problem solving, insight gaining. There is also opportunity to learn quality and kind of functioning in relation to such traits as memory, judgment, comprehension, reasoning, abstraction. Furthermore, malfunctioning may be seen and distinguished from healthy mental functioning. Also observable are personality traits such as confidence, persistence, security, dependence, defensiveness, etc. The observations and clinical determinations of the psychologist are accurate, subtle, deep, and enlightening to the degree of his particular skill, competence, and experience. Here, and only here, can determination be made of true intellectual capacity as distinguished from and discrepant from performing capacity.

Similarly, tests of manual dexterity, manipulation, and so forth, can provide information of great value about attitudes toward work and habits of work. What are the counselee's standards, and what is his approach? Does the counselee improve with practice and continue on to an ever-better performance? On the other hand, does he tire with a prolonged task and tend to reduce his energy output and decrease his motivation? Is he careful, meticulous, accurate, or does he tend to try to rush or be inaccurate and careless? Does he have pride in his performance and to what degree?

Not only is observational material obtainable from individually administered tests, but approach to paper-and-pencil tests, administered in a testing room with other counselees, also is revealing. Consideration for the examiner and other test-takers, dependency on the examiner, fear, demandingness, efficiency, and organization are some of the behaviors which may be most helpful in understanding and counseling the counselee.

Subjective examination and analysis of test content of other than individual ability tests is also a major aid to clinical diagnosis over and beyond and apart from the quantitative test result. We are accustomed to analysis of content of projective test responses for broad and deep understanding of the individual. Other tests also, when their content is analyzed, can make similar contribution. Whether it be an item review and analysis on an inventory-type personality test, or a paper-and-pencil mental ability test, or study habits and attitudes questionnaire, each has something of real significance to offer. Greatly impoverished is the counselor and the counseling when this rich source of knowledge is overlooked.

Analysis of content wherever we implicate it may afford bases for hypotheses and clues for exploration. Even though they do not provide the "*answers*," they may each and all supply a part of the jigsaw puzzle which when put together gives us the formulation or diagnosis.

Self-Assessment. This refers to self-assessment only as part of the process of counseling and not independent of it.

A vitally important contribution of tests, both measurement-wise and extra-measurement-wise, is that of gain in self-knowledge for the purpose of self-evaluation and thus development of insights. Even a biographical form, with the opportunity to put together information about oneself, both historically and cross sectionally, can give a counselee sufficient objective self-perception and clarification of problem and goal to facilitate the solution of his problem or determination of a choice or a decision.

To an even greater extent, this function can be served by the range of tests which compel self-inspection and self-inquiry. All of the inventory-type personality tests are of this character. Similarly, tests of general college adjustment; tests of attitudes and values; and tests of study habits, attitudes, methods, and techniques serve this purpose. The very "taking" of such tests as these, with the necessity for recording a response, compels thought and self-investigation, which activity in itself is both part of, and accelerative of, the process of counseling. Subsequently bringing to the counseling interview the counselee's conscious reaction to any or many of such items may lead to further insights and to reconstruction of many aspects of the self-concept.

The counselee can benefit from his own content analysis. For example, a counselee, in responding to adjustment or personality inventory tests, begins to recognize that he replies to items in a way which indicates to him that he must be rather passive. His passivity may thenceforth become a concern in his counseling. In self-assessment, the counselee has found clues to explore and pursue in his counseling.

Tests of the sort called special aptitude tests may often be most informative in the area of occupational information. Not only do such tests present situations and problems which occur in the occupation in question, as, for example, law, medicine, teaching, nursing, etc., but also give the counselee an opportunity to relate for himself his own attitudes and inclinations to the occupational demands. An example might be that of a counselee considering the possibility of preparing for teaching who, on responding to a teaching attitudes inventory, learns of the practical disciplinary problems in the classroom and who can thus visualize himself in such situations and try them on for size. Tests which reveal special knowledge in other than professional fields may provide some of the same direct view of occupational characteristics. In this category may be considered such tests as sales aptitude and comprehension, comprehension of mechanical principles, knowledge of supervisory principles. Even vocational interest tests, such as the Kuder, may be directly helpful to a counselee in this fashion since they describe the function or content of occupations rather than simply list them.

Interactive Facilitation. Here we are concentrating on the use of tests specifically within the interview framework for assisting in both the counseling relationship and communication and in furthering the counseling itself.

For the inarticulate uncommunicative person, testing may offer the means not only of immediate communication but may also be an impetus factor toward overcoming long-standing habits. For those who find it difficult to communicate orally in an interview, a Sentence Completion Test, for example, where thoughts are communicated in written form, may be most helpful in that they can then be talked about directly in the interview. If the counselee has been able to say in writing what he cannot say directly to the counselor, he has at least communicated and has expressed his willingness for the counselor to know what he has said and thus to begin to use it to help him to talk. A Thematic Apperception Test will perhaps draw on a counselee's unconscious attitudes and feelings, forming the basis for his communication on a deeper level than he has formerly been capable of in an interview.

We have indicated that both counselor and counselee can gain from tests very valuable information about the counselee's behavior and traits, again despite the fact that from a quantitative point of view validity and reliability coefficients might be less than desired.

In a sense the testing situation can be likened to a laboratory in which one learns about oneself in a real life situation and then can gain perspective upon it from counseling discussion. After test taking, both the counselor and counselee have the opportunity in the counseling relationship to share the impressions which come from the testing experience. Any of the information and impressions so derived can be used as an interview aid, as a method of entering into exploration and discussion. For example, with personality inventory-

type tests, it may be very useful in the counseling process for the counselee in the interview to evaluate with the counselor the presence or absence of a tested trait and the degree to which he feels it pertains. For the counselor, tests provide limitless material for introducing ideas, for exploring hypotheses, for presenting interpretations, for clarifying, for reinforcing insights. In communication regarding the counselee's reactions to the tests, their items, and his performance, the counselee has opportunity for greater self-understanding, leading to resolution of problems. Working in this way utilizes the resources of the counselee in involving him actively in the counseling process.

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CLOSED CIRCUIT TV USED IN COLLEGE STUDENT ORIENTATION

An experiment in the use of closed circuit television in the orientation of new students was conducted on The University of Michigan campus, Ann Arbor, during the February, 1961, registration for the spring semester. According to Jack Petoskey, Orientation Director for the Office of Registration and Records, "These programs will acquaint new students with rules, regulations, and facts on U-M social life." Prepared for 1,000 new registrants, the program involved use of Speech Department facilities by technicians from the U-M Television Studio. The program included welcoming addresses by the Dean of Women and the Dean of Men, student panels, a student-faculty discussion, and addresses by campus leaders.

INFLUENCE OF DOGMATISM ON COUNSELING

C. GRATTON KEMP

Success in counseling depends upon the counselee's change in self-concept and his ensuing action through the insight gained from a variety of sources, *e.g.*, test results, authority figures, peers, his own perception, and the counselor. Since the counselor lacks knowledge concerning the performance of some of these variables he may be encouraged in one instance and disconcertingly puzzled in another.

He is encouraged when a counselee perceives relationships and uses new insights. Mary reviews her term results with her counselor and decides to disengage herself from some of her activities and reduce the number of her class hours in order to improve her grade-point average.

However, the same counselor may be puzzled and disturbed to find that although the results of grades, tests, and inventories clearly indicate that John should change his self-concept, he does not do so. Although he understands the test results and their implications, they do not influence his behavior.

From these situations we can conclude that new experience has different meaning to different persons. Some approach it in all its detail; they analyze, evaluate, discard, or integrate part or all of it. The more open-minded they are, the more comprehensively they examine different aspects of the experience, try to clarify the ambiguity that may exist, and strive to see the relationship among parts.

Rokeach [6] concluded from the Doodlebug Experiments that the open-minded were superior in solving those problems requiring the transfer of learning. Kemp [3] found that the open-minded were superior to the closed-minded in working critical thinking problems.

The closed-minded approach new experience differently. Frequently they find new ideas, situations, even opportunities threatening. Rather than confront the meaning of the experience, they use several means of avoiding the impact. One device as Postman [5] suggests is by a perceptual defense against inimical stimuli. Another means is to squeeze, narrow, distort, or ignore the content and meaning of the experience, and thus make it fit comfortably into their preformed value system. Allport [1] observed in his study of rumor that what leads to obliteration of some details and falsification of others is that the force of the intellectual and emotional context existing in the individual's mind leads to the assimilation of ideas in accordance with the values resident within the individual. This distortion in the assimilation of ideas Maslow [4] concludes wards off threatening aspects of reality and at the same time provides the individual with a compensatory feeling that he understands it. This form of thinking has been designated as dogmatic and described by Rokeach [6] as the extent to which a person's system is open or closed; namely, the extent to which the person can receive, evaluate, and act on relevant information received from the outside on its own intrinsic merits, unencumbered by irrelevant factors in the situation arising from within the person or from the outside.

Those who are highly dogmatic do not approach a new experience openly; they are defensive, insecure, and more threatened. They are inclined to ignore, rationalize, project, distort, or narrow in their attempts to deal with it. Fromm [2] concludes that the

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more they become disposed to accept closed ways of thinking the greater becomes their need for recognition and power. And Rokeach [6] concludes that as the individual tries to handle new experience ideational or otherwise through identification, rationalization, denial, or projection, his thinking becomes a tightly woven network of cognitive defenses.

This distinct difference in the approach to experience between the open- and closed-minded thinker led to the assumption that in situations requiring transfer of learning, the making of inferences, and the analysis and evaluation of ideas the highly dogmatic individual would be less likely to profit from counseling.

Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that those who were open-minded or low in dogmatism would have fewer personal problems than those who were closed-minded or quite dogmatic and that those who were low in dogmatism would respond more favorably in counseling than those who were high in dogmatism.

Sample

Two groups (84 each) of freshman college students participated. Each member of both groups was administered the Dogmatism Scale Form E,[1] and the Mooney Problem Check List. The 25 with the highest and 25 with the lowest scores on the Scale in the Experimental Group were arbitrarily selected for study. The 25 with the highest and 25 with the lowest scores in the second group became the Control Group.

Procedures

During the following 10 weeks each member of the Experimental Group participated in four individual counseling interviews of one-half hour each with his teacher-counselor. At the conclusion both groups again took the Mooney Problem Check List.

The four individual counseling interviews were informal and unstructured. They were designated as a means for the students to explore subject matter or problems of any nature which they chose. In the counseling sessions, the instructor and student sat at desks at one side of the room turned at an angle of about 45 degrees.

The length of the interview was established in advance. The student came in, sat down, and after a casual comment, the instructor waited for the student to introduce the subject. The situation was permissive and relaxed. The teacher-counselor did not initiate a new subject but encouraged the student by recognition, clarification, and reflection to pursue the subject to the length he desired.

There was a great variety of subjects discussed. The low dogmatics were apparently more at ease, talked more freely, and seemed to feel less need for "closure." They also explored more fully the complexity of the situations and were evidently aware of the possibility of many more factors contributing toward a single result. They generally made some effort to analyze the confused, or hidden, aspects of a subject or problem.

The high dogmatics or those with a closed mind talked more and at greater length on "safe" topics, those which could hardly be suspected of having personal relevance. When occasionally they digressed into personal ramifications, they did not pursue them but restored a "safer" relationship. It was sometimes apparent that they wished to analyze thoroughly a problem but seemed to have some difficulty in tolerating certain facets and ideas and were inclined to label these before they had been explored or their relationship to other ideas worked out. It appeared that the interview did not noticeably reduce tensions.

Analysis of the Data

At the commencement of the study there was a significant difference at the one per cent level between the low and high dogmatics in each of the Experimental and Control Groups in the number of problems

[1] The Dogmatism Scale was developed and standardized by Dr. Milton Rokeach, Professor of Psychology, Michigan State University. The Scale and related research is presented in *The Open and Closed Mind*, New York: Basic Books, 1960, Chapters 3 and 4.

TABLE 1

A Comparison of the Number of Personal Problems of the Low and High Dogmatic Subgroups of the Experimental and Control Group at the Commencement of the Study
(N = 50)

Group	Sub-group	Mean	Diff/M	t	P
Experi-mental	Low	8.7			
	High	14.0	5.3	2.72	0.01
Control	Low	9.3			
	High	14.8	5.5	2.71	0.01

0.01 = 2.68

indicated on the Mooney Problem Check List (TABLE 1).

After 10 weeks and four counseling interviews, the low dogmatics in the Experimental Group significantly reduced both the number of problems "of concern" and "of most concern" at the 0.01 per cent level and 0.02 per cent level respectively (TABLE 2). The average number "of concern" problems was reduced from 12.7 to 9.28 and "of most concern" problems was reduced from 4.8 to 2.68 (TABLE 2).

After 10 weeks, the low dogmatics in the Control Group had not reduced significantly the number of problems "of concern" and "of most concern" (TABLE 2). The average number of problems "of concern" and "of most concern" changed from 11.8 to 10.2 and 5.1 to 3.2 respectively (TABLE 2).

After 10 weeks and four counseling interviews the high dogmatics in the Experimental Group had not reduced significantly the number of problems "of concern" or "of most concern" (TABLE 2). The average number of problems "of concern" and "of most concern" changed from 21.81 to 18.08 and 6.1 to 8.92 respectively (TABLE 2).

After 10 weeks the high dogmatics in the Control Group had not reduced significantly the number of problems "of concern" or "of most concern" (TABLE 2). The average number of problems "of concern" and "of most concern" changed from 22.1 to 20.9 and 6.3 to 9.8 (TABLE 2).

Conclusions

1. Dogmatism is a factor which influences the number of personal problems of freshman college students.
2. The high dogmatics have more personal problems than the low dogmatics.
3. One college quarter and four counseling interviews reduce significantly the number of problems of the low dogmatics.

TABLE 2

A Comparison of the Low Dogmatic Subgroups and the High Dogmatic Subgroups of the Experimental and Control Groups at the Beginning and End of the Study
(N = 25)

Problems		Mean Before	Mean After	Diff/M	t	P
Experimental						
"of concern"	(a)*	12.7	9.28	3.42	3.42	0.01
	(b)†	21.8	18.08	3.72	1.32	NS
"of most concern"	(a)	4.8	2.68	2.12	2.59	0.02
	(b)	6.1	8.92	−2.82	−1.49	NS
Control						
"of concern"	(a)	11.8	10.2	1.6	0.91	NS
	(b)	22.1	20.9	1.2	0.89	NS
"of most concern"	(a)	5.1	3.2	1.9	0.98	NS
	(b)	6.3	9.8	−3.5	−1.55	NS

0.05 = 2.06

* (a) Low.
† (b) High Dogmatic Subgroups.

4. One college quarter and four counseling interviews do not reduce significantly the number of problems of the high dogmatics.
5. In one college quarter neither the low or the high dogmatics significantly reduce their problems without counseling.

Implications

More understanding of the student with closed ways of thinking is necessary. Counselors should be familiar with the difference dogmatism makes in the interpretation and evaluation of experience and the character of the defense mechanisms of the dogmatic person. A method of counseling which is satisfactory in helping the low dogmatic may be of little value in assisting the individual with a closed belief system.

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NEW FILM BIBLIOGRAPHY ON GUIDANCE

A bibliography listing over 340 films dealing with junior and senior high school guidance programs has been released by the Indiana University Audio-Visual Center. Designed for guidance directors, counselors, and teachers, the new bibliography complements the *Indiana University 1960 Catalog of Educational Motion Pictures* and the *1961 Supplement*. The Audio-Visual Center reports that committees of individuals with a responsibility for the development and direction of guidance programs, or specialists in this area have previewed all the films listed in the guidance bibliography and have recommended them for use on the junior and/or senior high school level. The bibliography includes instructions on how to use the services of the IU film library. Interested persons may write for information on how to secure a copy of the *Guidance* bibliography to the Circulation Department, Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

Influencers of Occupational Choice

ODELL UZZELL

CRONBACH [1] defines an identifying figure as "a person whom we accept as an example of desirable conduct and attitudes in many situations." The process of identification beginning with earliest childhood, when the child identifies with his parents, continues through adulthood. As the child grows older and as direct contact and exposure to mass media broaden the child's knowledge of people, there is a wider choice of identifying figures or models. As a young adult, he increasingly seeks out models that tend to be consistent with his self-image. In seeking out models, it is conceivable that the accompanying identification might well become a basis for many forms of adaptive behavior, viz., occupational choice, moral standards, and political attitudes. If identification then becomes a basis of occupational choice, adolescents' occupational aspirations should reflect the influence of persons whom they have accepted as models.

Problem and Sample

The major problem of this study is to investigate the stated influencers of occupational aspirations of a selected sample of urban senior Negro male high school youth in Eastern North Carolina.

Data for the study were taken from a proportionate random sample of 301 senior males in 14 urban high schools. Questions and interviews were used to elicit data. The nature of the questions was explained thoroughly to the respondent during the interview by the writer.

Respondents were asked these questions: (1) Do you know anyone in the occupation you prefer? (2) Have any persons in your preferred occupation (s) influenced your decision directly or indirectly? (3) In what occupation (s) are the persons who have influenced your decision? (4) If your decision to enter your preferred occupation has not been influenced by anyone, where did you learn about the occupation?

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Findings

TABLE 1 contains data on the influence of known occupational models upon the occupational choices of respondents. Of the 301 respondents in the study, 211 knew occupational models. In short, 70 per cent of the respondents knew persons in the field to which they aspired, whereas 30 per cent did not know such persons. Of the 211 respondents who knew models, 162, or 77 per cent, indicated they were influenced by them. There were 49 respondents, or 23 per cent, who knew models but who indicated they were not influenced by them.

The rank order by the percentage of respondents influenced by persons in the same occupations compared with the total number in the sample aspiring to the occupation is shown in TABLE 2. High influence of models was shown for automobile repairman, teacher, barber, and tailor. Considering some of the individual occupations, TABLE 2 shows that a total of 20 respondents in the study aspired to become automobile repairmen. Of these, 85 per cent were influenced by automobile repairmen. Similarly, brickmasons showed 82.3 per cent, teachers 80.5 per cent, and tailors 71 per cent. Low influence of occupational models was shown for baseball players, players in a dance band, radio technicians, and engineers. Only one-half of the base-

TABLE 1

Influence of Models on the Occupational Aspirations of Respondents Who Knew Models (N = 211)

Aspired Occupations	*Number of Aspirants*	*Number Knowing a Personal Model*	*Number Indicating Model as Influential*
Teacher	36	36	29
Engineer	27	18	8
Automobile Repairman	20	17	17
Lieutenant, A.F.	20	9	8
Brickmason	17	16	14
Sergeant, A.F.	11	6	5
Sergeant, Army	10	3	3
Radio Technician	9	6	3
Baseball Player	8	8	4
Barber	8	7	6
Player in Dance Band	7	2	2
Tailor	7	6	5
Television Repairman	6	3	2
Physician	6	6	4
Commercial Artist	6	2	2
Lawyer	5	4	4
Building Contractor	4	3	3
Mortician	3	3	3
Bricklayer	3	3	3
Farmer, Owner	3	2	2
Laboratory Technician	3	2	2
Airplane Mechanic	3	1	1
Captain, A.F.	3	1	1
Postal Clerk	3	1	1
Manager, Office	3	2	1
Vocalist, Rock 'n' Roll	3	2	0
Electrician	3	1	0
Vocalist, Gospel	2	2	2
Policeman	2	2	2
Vocalist, Popular	2	2	2
Carpenter	2	2	2
Funeral Director	2	2	2
Interior Decorator	2	2	2
Draftsman	2	1	1
Electronics Technician	2	1	1
Pharmacist	2	1	1
Boxer	2	2	1
Veterinarian	2	1	0
Social Worker	2	1	0
Manager, Grill	1	1	1
Cabinet Maker	1	1	1
Farm Agent	1	1	1
Streetcar Motorman	1	1	1
Shoe Repairman	1	1	1
Photographer, Commercial	1	1	1
Dentist	1	1	1
Actor, Movie	1	1	1
Recreation Director	1	1	1
Basketball Player	1	1	1
Research Physicist	1	1	1
Interior Decorator	1	1	1
Machinist	1	1	1
Accountant	1	1	0
Bus Driver, City	1	1	0
Plumber	1	1	0
Manager, Sales	1	1	0
Television Engineer	1	1	0
Mathematician	1	1	0
Teletypist	1	1	0
Minister	1	1	0
Artist	1	1	0
TOTAL	283	211	162

Continued

TABLE 2

Rank Order by Percentage of Respondents Who Were Influenced by Persons in the Same Occupations

Occupational Aspirations	*Rank*	*Number Influenced*	*Number of Aspirants in the Sample*	*Per Cent Influenced*
Automobile Repairman	1	17	20	85.0
Brickmason	2	14	17	82.3
Teacher	3	29	36	80.5
Barber	4	6	8	75.0
Tailor	5	5	7	71.0
Baseball Player	6	4	8	50.0
Player in a Dance Band	7	3	7	42.0
Radio Technician	8	3	9	33.0
Engineer	9	8	27	29.0

TABLE 3

Influencers of Respondents Aspiring to Become Automobile Repairmen (N = 20)

Influencers	*Times Mentioned*
Automobile Repairman	17
Television Repairman	3
Teacher	1
Chemist	1
Truck Driver	1

ball players indicated they were influenced by baseball players. Still lower percentages were shown for radio technicians with 33 per cent and engineers with 29 per cent. This would seem to suggest that 67 per cent of the radio technicians and 70 per cent of the engineers were influenced by sources other than models in the respective fields.

It was pointed out above that the influence of models for aspiring automobile repairmen, brickmasons, and teachers was generally high, whereas that for radio technicians and engineers was generally low. The individual influencers for automobile repairmen and engineers by the number of times each was mentioned are shown in TABLE 3 and TABLE 4 respectively. Notable differences between the influencers of the two groups were the variety of sources

TABLE 4

Influencers of Respondents Aspiring to Become Engineers (N = 27)

Influencers	*Times Mentioned*
Television	9
Engineer	8
Teacher	8
Parents	6
Periodicals	6
Ratio	4
Research (Personal)	2
Movies	2
Chemist	1
College student	1
Truck driver	1

indicated by engineers including varied forms of mass media.

Data on the influencers of occupational aspirations for the total sample appear in TABLE 5. Each source of influence is listed in order by the number of times it was mentioned. Again, "persons in the same occupation" appeared as the main source of influence. They were mentioned 38.39 per cent of the time. The second source of influence was "mass media" (radio, movies, television, and periodicals), which was mentioned 22.99 per cent of the time.

TABLE 5

Influencers of Preferred Occupational Aspirations by Number of Times Mentioned for the Total Sample

Influencers	*Times Mentioned*	*Per Cent*
Persons in the Same Occupation	162	38.39
Mass Media	97	22.99
Persons in a Different Occupation	78	18.48
Research and/or Books	63	14.93
Experience and/or Course	20	4.74
Hobby	2	0.47
TOTAL	422	100.00

Summary

1. A definite relationship is revealed between respondents' occupational aspirations and their knowledge of occupational models. Of the 211 respondents who knew models, 162, or 77 per cent, indicated their choices were influenced by models, whereas 49, or 23 per cent, who knew models indicated they were not influenced by them.

2. The number of visible models for superior or high aspiring students may be very limited in small towns that have a low socio-economic level. The general occupational structure is not likely to include a representative cross section of occupations nor a concentration of high status ones, but rather, a concentration in the low status occupations.

3. Although 66.6 per cent of the aspiring engineers indicated they knew personal models, less than one-half of these, 44.4 per cent, indicated they were influenced by them. Perhaps the nature of the relationship between the respondents and the known models and the lack of opportunities in gaining admittance to engineering in the communities concerned tended to either prevent the respondents' identifying with them or acknowledging them as being influential.

4. In addition to models, occupational aspirations were influenced significantly by other sources. Notable among these were mass media and persons in occupations other than those of respondents' choices.

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CONFERENCE ON PSYCHIATRIC HOSPITAL AS A SOCIAL SYSTEM

"Research on the Psychiatric Hospital as a Social System" was the topic of a conference held in Ellenwood House on the Washington University campus, St. Louis, Missouri, Friday and Saturday, March 3 and 4, and sponsored by the Social Science Institute and University College. The third annual conference in the training program for research in community mental health, it was attended by 115 participants from hospitals, medical schools, the department of public welfare, health departments, and divisions of mental diseases in states across the nation, including Vermont and California.

The purpose of the conference was to bring together experts in fields of research relating to community mental health and to promote participation by graduate student trainees. Among the topics discussed were: The Therapeutic Use of the Hospital; Some Implications of Ward Structure for Enculturation of Patients; The Hospital Social System in Psychiatric Perspective; The Psychiatric Hospital: An Anthropological View; The Comparative Study of Mental Hospitals; and The Therapeutic Community in Action: A St. Louis Experience.

Guidance in Practice

Vocational Guidance Through Fact and Fiction

EUGENIA SACOPULOS

Both fiction and nonfiction can be effectively used to cater to the slow and the bright student. In relating literature to life, the student, through reading and tactful discussion, can be encouraged to do a little self-evaluating with good results. Many students develop interests through reading fiction. These are later transferred to nonfiction areas. This approach to guidance and an understanding of self in relation to the world of work is especially pertinent in English classes.

To the mutual benefit of teachers and students, fiction and nonfiction can be used for motivation in vocational planning as a unit or all during the year at any level in high school. While this article is aimed primarily at the high school level, it may be of equal interest to grade school teachers who would like to employ similar sources. The range of students who may be helped in this way extends from those who are "hot for certainty" to "apathetic sponges." To move these students to a state of curiosity which includes finding out the "how and why" should be the aim of any teacher. Curiosity then leads students to obtain background material on occupations. They may find, enjoy, and see the significance of vicarious experiences and find relief in having their questions answered in print. The writing does not have to be particularly great as long as it gives them the satisfaction of indulging themselves in material that seems to represent some of their own ideas and feelings.

The outstanding advantage of fiction is that it is usually more readable. Frequently, a great amount of information about kinds of work, qualifications, advantages and disadvantages, promotional steps, and working conditions of particular careers comes to light in the conversations of the main characters. However, since the heroes and heroines often are extremely successful, students often accept them uncritically and choose unreasonable roads to success. Unless teachers make a point of helping them to set reasonable objectives, the value of the reading may be lost. In addition, this type of fiction often stimulates the reader to search for additional information in a more factual type of publication which is generally purely expository.

Biographies have a primary advantage in that they may serve as a link between fiction and abstract studies of occupations since they furnish examples of success in life. The inspirational value of these books is good, but the fields explored are limited mostly to professions. They often give a distorted view because they present a picture of people who have achieved unusual success in their chosen work. Here again the teacher must furnish the student with guidance in evaluating his experience. In this case it is up to the teacher to point out how the hero of the autobiography has integrated his work with the other important aspects of life. The biographical section in many libraries offers a good selection on contemporaries instead of just stressing old stand-bys like Helen Keller and Babe Ruth. It is obvious, however, that the time consumed in gaining information in this way is often too much for practical needs, and it is at this point that more abstract works may be introduced profitably.

The particular advantage of factual book-length monographs is that they often give a comprehensive picture of an occupation to young people who have narrowed their interests. Usually they work around a single study but often combine two or more. Literature of occupations is classified according to the originality of the research, geographic scope, special aspects of an occupation, and methods of presentation. According to Baer and Roeber, literature may represent original or secondary research, national or local scope, industrial or occupational study, complete occupational monograph or special occupational studies [*1*].

Six books were selected and surveyed as to usefulness for ninth through twelfth grade students. These books cover three general vocations, teaching, nursing, and engineering, and include examples of fiction, biography, and monograph.

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Teaching

FICTION: The *Twenty-Five and Ann* [*5*], a de

lightful novel by Mary Urmston, would probably appeal to a girl in the ninth through eleventh grade because of its charming story of a very human teacher and her common, yet often unique, problems and good times in a fifth grade classroom. The 192-page story moves along easily. Although a good student would find this fast reading, she still can receive satisfaction from reading this entire book in a short time. This book easily creates a transfer to a more comprehensive nonfiction selection.

FACT: *A Teacher Is a Person* [6] is an educational autobiography. Charles Wilson, the author, says that it strays outside the limits of both education and biography into fields of humor and philosophy. Wilson emphasized that each teacher is a unique person and not a stereotype. The author is down to earth and considers present-day problems of teachers. He describes situations as they are and then adds his suggestions. A little of the spirit is caught here:

> I don't give a good gosh darn whether a student gets straight A's against inferior competition. Neither do I want to lose the native talents of a weak student with constant discouragement and failure. My brand of democracy believes that we owe every student the best opportunity we can give him to develop his talents to the maximum [6].

This book would be especially good for alert eleventh or twelfth grade students and even teachers.

Nursing

FICTION: *The Organdy Cupcakes* [4] was written by Mary Stolz who has done a beautiful job, not only in details and development, but expressly in the good feeling she creates and the story she tells. She captures the vitality of a young girl who is entering the nursing profession. Although much factual information is revealed "by the way," she places the emphasis of the novel on an adventurous romance. This book is particularly suitable for a ninth or tenth grade girl.

FACT: *American Women of Nursing* [7] contains short biographies of 12 American women who are recognized as great scientists. A distorted picture may be obtained by some students since only those who have achieved unusual success in their chosen work are presented. Nevertheless, the author, Edna Yost, puts the personal touch to the biographies by commenting on each. Tenth through twelfth graders would be interested in her coverage of twentieth century progress in nursing and the avoidance of the too-common Clara Barton idea. This book holds the interest of those who think they might find nursing a favorite vocation.

Engineering

FACT: *Atoms in the Family* [2] is a gradual attempt to raise students' level of sensibility so that they will develop an appetite for more mature books. It is well illustrated with authentic pictures. This book seems to meet the criteria of a good occupational book. The life of Enrico Fermi, the scientist whom many select as the father of the coming of the Atomic Age, is presented by his wife, Laura, who has a flare for anecdotes and who shared his life of intrigue in war-time Italy. This biography is especially suitable for eleventh or twelfth grade students.

FACT: *Careers and Opportunities in Engineering* [3] presents a succinct but comprehensive discussion of each branch of engineering and is especially good because of its recency, revealed by the chapter, "Calling All Women Engineers." The history of engineering, engineering today, and qualifications to enter the field precede discussions which should be of some benefit to young people who have narrowed their interests. It is about eleventh grade reading level. The significance of the vast progress in the entire field of engineering and the importance of its contributions are emphasized. There is good use of charts, pictures, and statistics.

The fact that books like those discussed are available in most libraries offers ready opportunity for introducing them to students. Displays can be set up by counselors, teachers and librarians to introduce occupational books to students. The clearly discernible principle behind these displays is the tendency to seek satisfactions and information as effortlessly as possible.

By introducing a sample of fact and fiction as it might be used in an English class or library, an overview of problems, appreciations, and values inherent in the use of this occupational information as a method of presenting vocational guidance has been revealed. A counselor and teacher can stimulate, help enlighten, and encourage students, especially those who are glued to the television sets as vidiots, to bridge their current interests to the adult working world.

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Counseling the Adolescent Girl on Personal Problems

JAMES F. ADAMS and PHYLLIS A. ROGERS

A particularly trying time in the life of many girls is early adolescence. Parents are frequently at a loss in understanding this period of development. The result may be the formulation of new rules in a sometimes desperate attempt to regulate this stage of growth. It is not surprising that interpersonal conflicts arise and that misunderstandings may be increased or magnified.

One adolescent girl was disturbed enough in her relationships with her mother to record her feelings so, as she put it, the same mistakes would not be made when she had a daughter. The result was a set of 20 rules[1] to guide mother-daughter relationships. The authors have found this list to be extremely useful in understanding and counseling girls of this age and in helping their parents to become more empathetic. The girls apparently gain a certain amount of comfort by realizing that their problems are shared by their peers; and with parents, particularly mothers, the list seems to refresh memories of this period in their lives. To exemplify the feelings of this young adolescent girl, six of her suggestions are reproduced below.

Proper Etiquette for Mother's Relationships With Their Daughters (Teen Age)

Written by a thirteen-year-old girl

6. *Don't* force her confidence, and when she does tell you surprising things, don't make a side show out of it, just answer in a matter-of-fact tone, and she'll tell you more. They don't like emotional outbursts.

8. Praise her for good work as often as it is rightly due. Don't turn her head though.

10. Don't contradict your daughter sharply to her face just for something to say. A good example is when your daughter says, "I need a new basketball. My other one is shot to pieces." And you say, "Oh, I don't think it is!" (When you really haven't even looked at it.) If you're trying to save money, tell her so, don't contradict like you know all about it when you don't.

11. Try to be understanding. When your daughter gets hysterical over a detail, don't just say, "Oh you'll be alright soon." To her, it is a big matter, and you ought to treat it as such. Try to reason it out together and give her your comfort and attention. She will appreciate it more than you know.

12. Don't govern her too hard; she likes freedom and plenty of it. Let her choose what dress she'll wear, continually, unless it is really absurd. She likes to fly her own wings. Let her make decisions occasionally. Take her into the family secrets and she'll feel important. She won't tell if you caution her not to. It's really good experience in keeping secrets, and makes her feel you can trust her.

20. *A very important fact* to bear in mind is that a girl doesn't relish her mother's talking of her "personal" intimate matters within her father's hearing when she is around. If it must be done, for *goodness sake* don't let her know about it. *This is extremely important.*

Basically this girl is asking for mature understanding from her mother. In her growth toward maturity she wants sympathetic recognition of her own inconsistencies as well as increasing acceptance of her adult prerogatives. Since many of the feelings that young people experience at this age are not communicated to others but are internalized, perhaps the use of a technique such as this can aid the counselor in helping the adolescent over this period of growth.

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[1] Available upon request from the senior author.

YEARBOOK DISCUSSES COURT DECISIONS DEALING WITH SCHOOLS

The 1961 edition of *The Yearbook of School Law,* by Lee O. Garber, School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, presents important court decisions of the past year dealing with schools and school law. Among the cases decided during the past year and discussed in the book is one of particular interest to members of APGA. The 258-page yearbook, the 12th in a series, is published by The Interstate, Danville, Illinois, and is available either cloth-bound at $4.25 or paper-bound at $3.25.

Books Reviewed

reviews of recent publications . . . by various contributors

PROVIDING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, edited by Norma E. Cutts & Nicholas Moseley. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1960. x + 273 pp. $6.65, trade; $5.00, classroom.

PROVIDING for individual differences always has been a concern of the good teacher and good school. Whatever the reason—Sputnik or atom bombs—the last decade has seen a tremendous surge of interest in this topic in a variety of other sources—ranging from writers of popular articles to presidential committees. The peak is still a long way off and this book therefore comes at a most opportune time.

It is not only opportune; it is useful and sensible. The editors explicitly state that the book has been written to help classroom teachers in the elementary school and teachers in training solve the problems involved in providing for individual differences. And they and the other contributing authors address themselves to doing precisely that. This is not a book for advanced students in personality or learning theory. It does not offer any new theories or methods of teaching or new ways of grouping pupils as panaceas to be followed. Nor is it derived from any single project or experiment. Instead it draws upon what to this reviewer seem to be the most reasonable and sensible ideas of the past and present to help the typical teacher in a typical school system. These ideas are well documented by references—derived both from experience and research—given at the end of each chapter.

Much of the recent concern about providing for individual differences has been with the so-called gifted. This book is concerned, too, with the academically talented but it is concerned, also, about all the children who come to school and with more than their academic differences. Most of the practical suggestions offered in the chapters devoted to specific subjects are about ways to help meet differences in academic ability, but the four opening and the closing chapters clearly recognize that differences in physique, behavior, background, needs, interests, and goals need to be considered as well. They also make clear that academic differences cannot be considered in isolation, if only to insure better academic learning.

The book consists essentially of three parts, although not formally labeled as such. The first part, four chapters written by the editors, deals with the nature and extent of individual differences, how to identify differences, some useful practices for the teacher to adopt in meeting the problems, and administrative policies and practices which bear upon the issue. Some promising administrative devices such as team teaching could have been given more attention. The discussion in these four chapters is not highly sophisticated nor in great depth. It is sound, however, and is suitably geared to its audience.

Chapters 5–10 form the second part of the book and deal with the special subject fields of art, music, the language arts, the social studies, science, and arithmetic. Each chapter is written by a different specialist of the field. These chapters are replete with practical, down-to-earth suggestions for the usual classroom teacher. They seem to assume the basic policy of the "self-contained" classroom, but then this is our typical situation today. However, many of the ideas can be adapted to any of the current changes which are being advocated for grouping children because of differences in ability. What the authors of these chapters are advocating is what this reviewer would label as just good teaching. Which reminds us that the essence of good teaching is the recognition of individual differences and making provisions for them.

Chapters 11 and 12, written by the editors, constitute part three. They are concerned with evaluation and its instruments and with the problem of self-realization and meeting children's emotional needs. Again

these chapters might be criticized as being too much at the "cookbook" level. This reviewer feels, however, that they serve a very useful purpose in terms of the audience to which the book is addressed.

There are two criticisms which can be offered. First, there is insufficient recognition of the kind of supporting help and service which the classroom teacher needs in trying to meet the problem of individual differences. This is a tremendously difficult problem and sometimes the best known grouping and teaching methods are ineffective with particular children. Teachers should be encouraged to seek the assistance of school counselors and psychologists in dealing with these children. Otherwise they may assume that they are expected to do the impossible and to become frustrated and embittered in their failure. If supporting help is not available the teacher might at least be given the comfort of knowing that he alone is not necessarily expected to solve the problem completely by himself.

The second criticism has to do with the issue of what constitutes good guidance. On page 264 the authors state: "Much has been said recently about the large number of [bright] boys and girls who fail to go to college. The surest way to correct this situation is for elementary school teachers to *plant* the idea of college in the minds of bright children and their parents." (Italics are mine.) In the next paragraph they state: "Good vocational guidance observes the principle that final choice must rest with the individual." This is obviously a contradiction and the authors should make up their minds as to which way they want it.

In closing, although one can say that altogether this book is not a sophisticated or erudite treatment of the subject, it is, nevertheless, for its purpose a good book and should prove to be very useful for those for whom it is intended.—EDWARD LANDY, *Assistant Superintendent for Pupil Personnel Services and Special Education, Newton (Massachusetts) Public Schools.*

PHYSICAL DISABILITY—A PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH, by Beatrice A. Wright. New York: Harper & Bros., 1960. 380 pp. $6.00.

DR. WRIGHT'S presentation of the psychological aspects of disablement begins the process of transforming rehabilitation psychology into an applied scientific discipline. Using the perspective of social psychology, the book explores three aspects of disablement: (1) the situation confronting physically atypical persons coping with the personal and social restrictions imposed by disability; (2) the attitudes of parents and lay members of the community coming into contact with the disabled; and (3) the problems and difficulties facing professional personnel working with disabled children or adults. Personal documents and autobiographical material exemplify in vivid, concrete terms, the uncertain, threatening and callous nature of the social environment surrounding the physically disabled person. The section on attitudes traces the sources of attitudes towards persons with atypical physiques and explores grievances and gratifications in everyday life for the handicapped and those coming into contact with them. The theoretical framework for rehabilitating and helping disabled persons adjust to psychological difficulties is based upon such key concepts as values, status, need for personal and social acceptance, the self-concept, goals, acceptance of loss, motivation, and overlapping situations.

Physical Disability—A Psychological Approach uses the accepted body of psychological theory and knowledge to provide a common theoretical scaffolding for rehabilitation practitioners, trainees, parents, and disabled persons. The juxtaposition of theoretical and autobiographical case material enhances understanding of social factors influencing the behavior of individuals who are marked as "different" by their appearance. Perhaps the most striking feature of the volume is the consistent application of explanatory concepts derived from "normal behavior" to the problem of persons with physical impairment. Dr. Wright assumes and demonstrates that the differences between the physically typical and atypical are not physical but psychological. Central to this approach are formulations such as accepting loss, the requirement of mourning, modes of interrelationship between the handicapped and the nonhandicapped, and idolizing normal standards of behavior. Our culture of similarity, conformity, and normality intensifies and

multiplies the psychological limitations of disablement. It rejects with pity or infantilization disabled persons who lack exceptional talent or the capacity to achieve material success. It surrounds them with a network of threats to personal security. From this point of view, deviations in appearance are less significant than the social pressure for the crippled to internalize minority group status and to accept an inferior position.

For the person with the disability, whether child or adult, there is no respite from this threatening cultural danger without the development of values which stress individualization and autonomy. The society of normalcy offers him two choices in lieu of personal integration—denial of impairment or entry into a minority group. Self-realization, a sense of worth, and an adequate self-concept are open only to those severely handicapped persons who can deal with social isolation and the loss of physical assets valued by society. Personal growth is facilitated if, with the help of parents, relatives, friends, or rehabilitation personnel, the disabled person can come to terms with his shortcomings in a friendly environment. An optimal therapeutic situation encourages learning, provides an over-all experience of success in rehabilitation, and a meaningful structure for the client. It sets attainable goals which generate the client's ability to cope with problems of activity and relationships with others. It enables him to experiment, whether symbolically or situationally, with tentative solutions in a climate which permits him to fail without disastrous consequences. The friendly environment provides for the active participation of the physically disabled person through clarifying and increasing the significance of his role in rehabilitation.

The book as a whole is a valuable addition to the field of rehabilitation. Of particular interest are the outline of somatopsychology, the discussion of methods of coping with the problems of disability, the role of the parent in rehabilitation, the résumé of developmental difficulties faced by the crippled child or adolescent, and the analysis of uncertain or overlapping situation faced by the physically impaired. The book does not explore sufficiently the deep-seated personal concomitants of disability or the institutional structure of society which molds the physically impaired into dependent or independent individuals without permitting them to achieve the necessary blend of independence and interdependence. Simplicity of style, avoidance of terminological obscurantism, and clarity of presentation make the book a necessity to all who help, work or live with disabled persons. Its theoretical contributions make it a must for rehabilitation professionals and trainees.—WILLIAM GELLMAN, *Executive Director, Jewish Vocational Service, Chicago.*

LEADERSHIP, PSYCHOLOGY AND ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR, by Bernard M. Bass. New York: Harper & Bros., 1960. 548 pp. $6.25.

NEW CONTENT in an old theory characterizes Bass's excellent, distinctive volume in social psychology. The wealth of research in small group behavior, heretofore largely seen as within the context of Lewinian theories, is more rigorously interpreted within the context of orthodox stimulus-response or reinforcement terminology. There is no doubt but that Bass carries it off well; it will be a comfort to many psychologists to discover so skillful a discussion of social behavior in this more specific structure. Exceedingly well organized and crystal-clear though somewhat dry in his presentation, Bass has redrawn many of the now traditional terms into more precise definitions. Perhaps some will see this as a furtherance of the unification in phenomenological and behavioristic approaches.

If Bass is narrow in his theoretical outlook, he can not be accused of establishing biased limits in his selection of research. Leadership projects utilizing projective instruments as the TAT and Rorschach are no less prominently featured than are those more objectively based. The scholarship in the book, as represented by over 1,200 studies cited, is unassailable. There is real doubt, however, as to whether or not the stimulus-response context seems to add any more to the meaning of the content than do the basic studies themselves. Neverthe-less, in addition to its encyclopedic collec-

tion of studies in leadership and group behavior; the book contains perhaps one of the best discussions of the logical positivistic approach to human behavior.

Bass's approach seems to contribute much to brevity in the definitions of simple phenomenon (a group is "a collection of individuals whose existence as a collection is rewarding to the individuals or enables them to avoid punishment"). However, when the attempt is made to rise to more complex phenomena such as conflict or esteem one finds the author wisely resorting to words more reminiscent of perceptual terminology. In one instance he becomes intricately entangled in a complex diagram for which where testability seems quite unlikely.

Warmth and charm are contributed to the book by the careful selection of surprisingly apt and appropriate comments on leadership found in the ancient literature, *e.g.*, "Plato: 'The tyrant . . . is always stirring up some war or other, in order that the people may require a leader.'" These precede each chapter. Otherwise the book deals with this very human subject in so non-human a fashion through SR theory as to leave one with fearful images of *1984;* such cold analyses of coercion, power, and authority leave one with a shadow of a shudder. Bass's volume nevertheless probably contains the widest collection of pertinent studies in leadership available in the literature and as such it is well woven into consistent theoretical framework.—TED LANDSMAN, *Professor of Education, University of Florida.*

THE ADOLESCENT—A BOOK OF READINGS, edited by Jerome Seidman. Revised. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1960. 870 pp. $6.50.

THE PRESENT VOLUME represents a revision of the compilation made in 1953 by the same editor. The stated purpose of the revision to reflect newer areas of investigation and methods of research appears to be amply met. Thirty-four of the 72 articles have been published since 1955, and 39,

over-all, are new to this edition. The reviewer noted some six articles bearing the publishing data of 1959.

The editor states that this volume was designed to serve as either a basic textbook or in conjunction with another text. The nature of the contents vary greatly from highly empirical and objectives studies of limited scope, through generalized statements of opinions, to the presentation of clinical case material. As a text, it would serve as an excellent base for provocative class discussion. Used as a supplementary source to accompany another text, some judicial pruning might be in order by the instructor for use in a typical one-semester course.

Many familiar and well-known names are represented: H. E. Jones, Bayley, Shock, Havighurst, Terman, etc. These serve to bridge the gap between a textbook and this volume of readings, if the latter is used as a supplement. In addition, there are representations from well-known names less likely to be found in texts on adolescence at the present: Guilford, Gough, and Ausubel, to name a few. With such inclusions, opportunities are presented for direction of interests to areas sometimes not given a great deal of attention in courses.

The editor has also provided opportunities for development of critical thinking about research activities. A study by Wallin designed to replicate earlier research on conflicting sex roles in college women confirmed the earlier findings only to a degree. Following this study in the volume is one by McKee and Sherrifs with a similar orientation with partial confirmation but ramifications of problems and explanations. Other examples are present in the collection. In the hands of a skillful instructor, such materials can be used to help students grow in cautiousness in generalization from study findings as well as to gain perspective in appreciation for both varied and systematic exploration of psychological phenomena. The editor has gone further yet, in other places, to organize and present comments of several reviewers, with somewhat varied perceptions, of a single research study.

The diversity of materials regarding content, degree of objectivity, freedom from bias, etc., serves to introduce the student to almost the full gamut of what might be thought of as the available psychological literature. Students' awareness of these differences could be heightened for the purpose of development of discriminatory and critical qualities. In this regard, a number of studies contain actual methods of information collection such as questionnaires, etc. The references cited in the articles are organized in a master bibliography at the end of the volume. Happily, there are a number of references in one article which are, themselves, other selections within the volume. This fact the editor is careful to point out in the brief introduction to each representation. It is felt that this organization may be one of the strongest features of the collection.

A number of articles dealing with present attitudes of adolescents and certain interrelationships are presented. However, the collection might have been better served by greater emphasis on the etiology and development of feelings and attitudes. There is also in Seidman's book, a more pronounced clinical and pathological orientation than may be representative for "average" situations. Under the broad heading of understanding and helping adolescents by individual approaches, two of the four cases deal, respectively, with a firesetter in residential treatment and an institutionalized schizophrenic. The article by Cook dealing with an experimental approach to modifying the social stratification in a 10th-grade class might represent an orientation with which there might be a greater sense of identification in the student.

Over-all, however, the carefulness and general thoroughness of the editor is present in a volume of great value to the instructor seeking a medium for development of critical thinking and representation of psychological literature in adolescence. It is very impressive that such carefulness and thoroughness can be present in a volume of almost dramatic up-dating.—HARRY L. SASLOW, *Instructor in Medical Psychology, University of Oregon Medical School.*

GRADUATE EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES, by Bernard Berelson. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960. 346 pp. $6.95.

AFTER BRIEFLY tracing the problems connected with the establishment of

graduate education in the United States, Berelson devotes the bulk of his volume to the major issues now active in this highly important segment of our culture. Little attention is given to the master's programs, which this survey shows are now being downgraded by the better institutions in terms of both requirements and prestige. This is partly a consequence of the professionalization of the master's (its requirement in education, *i. e.*, for service in the secondary schools), but is also due in large measure to the tendency of the major graduate schools to concentrate their chief energies and talents on their doctoral programs.

Despite the fact that the master's is flourishing in terms of numbers and diversification, Berelson has serious doubts as to its future significance. This is indeed discouraging to those who viewed strengthening the master's as a means of coping with the growing need for college teachers. As the author indicates, there is little likelihood of such a prospect when we consider that this degree has lost greatest prestige in the top 12 institutions of the nation, the degree's competitive disadvantage relative to the doctorate, and the coolness of both industry and our better colleges towards it. Major industrial employers, for example, differentiate between the holders of master's and doctor's rather than between the master's and the bachelor's

Berelson's presentation of current practices and viewpoints connected with doctoral training in the arts, sciences, and professional fields is masterful. After careful reading of the pertinent literature and discussion with many informed persons, data were compiled by uncommonly skilled application of the questionnaire technique to graduate deans and faculty members, recent recipients of the doctorate, college presidents and representatives of industries employing sizable numbers of Ph.D.'s. Practically all of the important issues and controversies associated with such training are laid bare, the views of each of these groups being assessed on Berelson's own particular set of scales. Berelson, in all fairness, must be credited with rare objectivity, despite the fact that his personal penchants are occasionally apparent. Rarely have questionnaire data been presented in a more lucid and readable manner. Tables have been integrated with text in such a way that the latter is supported without excess intrusion of the former. Regrettably, the wealth of material is not conveniently accessible because of the absence of an index.

On the basis of his survey of current graduate training, Berelson concludes that despite all of the heated controversy there has been tremendous progress made in a few decades by American graduate schools. Having started with a few private centers, there have grown up a considerable number of state-supported graduate institutions which are coming into rapidly increasing relative significance, especially in terms of the number of doctorates conferred. And no longer do Americans look to Europe as the home of advanced training. When the broad view is taken, the record is exceedingly impressive.

Berelson concludes with 19 specific recommendations pertinent to the graduate program: to the training, the recruitment and financial support of the student, the administration and organization of the graduate school. He feels strongly that more post-doctoral training is needed and therefore suggests that the great universities at the top become "super" graduate schools concentrating on doctoral and post-doctoral programs at the expense of the master's. Finally, he urges the establishment, in Washington, of a first-rate super-graduate school with distinguished faculty, pointing out that "we are the only major country without a first-rate university in the nation's capital."—Ellis Weitzman, *Chairman, Department of Psychology, The American University.*

The Open and Closed Mind, by Milton Rokeach. New York: Basic Books, 1960. 447 pp. $7.50.

The jacket of this book claims that it springs from "the tradition of such works as... *The Authoritarian Personality.*" The comparison is an arresting one, for in many ways the books are very similar. Both deal with belief systems and present new methods of measuring them. Sections of both re-present and integrate previous research by the authors. And, regrettably,

both have the problem of response set as an alternative explanation to their findings.

And yet, in a large sense Rokeach's work is an alternative to *The Authoritarian Personality*. While *The Open and Closed Mind* basically concerns itself with the organization of belief systems, it deals more with structure than with content. Here, as he has before, Rokeach gently criticizes the authors of *The Authoritarian Personality* for confounding the measurement of authoritarianism with that of prejudice and rigidity. Feeling that the F Scale only covers authoritarianism in one direction (the political right), he attempts to construct a measure of general authoritarianism. Rokeach's point that it is as possible to be dogmatically liberal as to be dogmatically reactionary is well taken; yet he gives the false impression that *The Authoritarian Personality* completely overlooked half of the continuum.

The basic concept in Rokeach's work is dogmatism or "a closed way of thinking which could be associated with any ideology regardless of content" (p. 4). It differs from rigidity in that dogmatism is a broader concept, more characteristic of belief systems, while rigidity is applicable to specific behaviors. Rokeach describes the construction of a Likert-type scale to measure dogmatism. (Sample items: "Once I get in a heated discussion, I just can't stop" and "Communism and Catholicism have nothing in common.") Like authoritarianism, dogmatism is seen as a general concept, with various somewhat unrelated aspects. The scale seems to consist of items measuring rigidity, authoritarianism, feelings of inadequacy, paranoia, and anomie; it would probably yield as many factors as the F Scale, yet like that ubiquitous scale it seems to hang together well.

A second scale, the Opinionation Scale, is also presented. Its function is to measure general intolerance. Each item consists of a stem such as "A person must be pretty ignorant if . . . " or "Anyone who knows what's going on will tell you that. . .," followed by a controversial belief in the field of politics, religion, or economics. Since ideological content could not be removed from this scale as it was in the Dogmatism scale, Rokeach has counterbalanced items so that there are both negative and positive items on each topic. A weakness of the Opinionation scale would seem to be the loss of its timeliness, since many of the items deal with such topics as admission of Red China to the UN, General MacArthur, and the Rosenbergs.

The rest of the book consists of studies testing deductions from the theory of belief-disbelief systems presented in the introductory chapters. The development shows a rigorous and logical unfolding which sets an example of how research should progress. Generally, hypotheses are tested by comparing subjects who are in the top and bottom quarters (or 15%'s) on the Dogmatism scale. Subjects generally are college students, but Rokeach ranges widely, using English Communist Party members (who, incidentally, are very high on dogmatism despite their low prejudice scores), ministers, and laborers. He even uses ecumenical councils of the Catholic Church in a fairly successful attempt to document a relationship between the amount of situational threat and the resultant degree of punitiveness.

At times Rokeach and his associates seem too enthusiastic over rather meager findings. In other studies, however, measures on the two extreme groups elicit astounding differences. For example, 21 of 25 college-age "openminded" subjects were unable to remember the age at which they stopped bed-wetting, whereas all 25 of the dogmatic subjects claimed they could remember.

Despite the fact that in some studies group differences are very slight, Rokeach's hypotheses are generally borne out. Compared to open-minded ones, dogmatic subjects are more extreme in political ideology, less able to synthesize beliefs into a new belief system, less acceptant of unconventional music (such as Shonberg's), more anxious, and more likely to glorify their parents unrealistically.

It is interesting to speculate about the acceptance of this work by researchers. Because of its absolution of ideological content, the Dogmatism scale will probably not elicit the zealous reception accorded the California scales. At the present time the scale seems to have little to offer the counselor dealing with the individual case. Yet the book is a neat example of the development of a research area, complete with theory, instruments, and tests of hypotheses.—LAWRENCE S. WRIGHTSMAN, JR., *Assistant Professor, George Peabody College for Teachers.*

Publications . . . in brief

THOMAS M. MAGOON

College Impact on Students

Impact of College—New Dimensions in Higher Education, No. 4, 1960. U. S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. USGPO, Washington 25, D. C. 27 pp. $.15.

This fourth in the New Dimensions in Higher Education series is authored by M. B. Freedman, Coordinator of the Mary Conover Mellon Foundation at Vassar College. The Mellon Foundation has been very prominent in sponsoring investigations in this area. Impact, as reported here, refers to status and changes in student characteristics of personality, character, and values. Relatively very little systematic attention through research in the social sciences has been devoted to this form of impact. This lack is undoubtedly due to both the complexities involved and to the heavy historical precedences inclining investigators and practitioners to view impact in terms of intellectual-informational gains.

Freedman has done an excellent job of integrating in brief fashion the data from a wide variety of sources. His analysis is organized under the following headings: (1) the characteristics of the entering student; (2) studies of the college as an institution with emphasis on student culture and characteristics of faculty and teaching; and (3) changes in student characteristics during the college years. This last named section constitutes the bulk of the report and includes extensive sub-sections dealing with changes in (a) mental ability, skills and knowledge; (b) attitudes and values; and (c) personality characteristics.

The reported material will impress the reader who is unfamiliar with the breadth of the source materials involved. The reader will be impressed also with the disquieting findings of many investigations, plus the relative paucity of our knowledge. This seems particularly true when considered in contrast to the magnitude of the higher educational enterprise in American culture.

The foreword points up this challenge in very sharp focus by suggesting three alternatives for personnel concerned with higher education: ignore the matter of such impact (or lack thereof), make less immodest claims for same, or make more systematic investigations with the view toward increasing such impact. One wonders what the impact of this report will be.

Placement Process in Vocational Rehabilitation

The Placement Process in Vocational Rehabilitation Counseling, GTP Bulletin No. 2, Rehabilitation Service Series No. 545, 1960. U.S. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. USGPO, Washington 25, D. C. 104 pp. $.35.

The proceedings from past Guidance, Training and Placement Workshops provided Thomason and Barrett with the bulk of the material which they have edited for this issue in the rehabilitation series. The material was prepared for use in in-service training programs and in graduate training programs with students specializing in rehabilitation.

The contents consist of a compilation of " . . . as many of the facts, opinions, and attitudes as possible relative to the placement process." Separate chapters deal with the placement process in terms of (a) the client, (b) the community, (c) the employer, (d) the job itself, and (e) follow-up. Additional chapters consider (a) placement in small business enterprise, homebound employment, and sheltered workshops; (b) special considerations in placement of the blind; and (c) special studies in placement (concerned with the disability areas of mental retardation and of mental illness). In this last section are included the number and types of job placements made, counselor approaches to motivate such employing behavior on the part of employers, common on-and-off-the-job adjustment problems experienced by these clients, and how the counselors coped with them.

Similarly, the chapter on the employer and the placement process presents (from previous investigations) a quite stimulating inventory of employer rationales for employing or not employing disabled workers.

A section discussing the Association of Casualty and Surety Companies' statement on "The Physically Impaired Can be Insured without Penalty" is also included. The excerpts cited are quite emphatic in indicating insurability for workmen's compensation to be based upon the relative hazards of a company's work and by its accident ex-

perience, rather than upon disability characteristics of the workers employed.

Social Organization of the Prison

Theoretical Studies in Social Organization of the Prison, Pamphlet No. 15, 1960. Social Science Research Council, 230 Park Ave., New York 17, N. Y. 146 pp. $1.50.

This report reflects the deliberations of an interdisciplinary SSRC Conference Group on Correctional Organization which met over a period of a year and one-half. The social scientists' consideration was limited to particular aspects of correctional life as determined by the topics of research investigations in which the individual group members had been involved. The contents are reflected in the six chapters. In the first chapter is considered the inmate social system and the variations between verbal support for and actual behavior within the system. The second chapter concerns social control within the prison, particularly the relationship between control and behavior deviating from formal custodial norms and the effect of such controls on cohesiveness within the prison population. The hypothesis is advanced that pressures toward disruptive behaviors are countered by the development of illegitimate opportunity structures which in turn lead those who rise through such channels to exert inhibitory and adaptive influences on others. The third chapter deals with communication patterns as bases of systems of authority and power. One hypothesis states that changes in the formal power structure influences communications patterns (and vice versa). Another states that incongruence between communication patterns and the requirements of the authority system will lead to disorder and anarchy.

The fourth chapter considers limitations on organization of treatment; the fifth, conflicting interests in correctional objectives; and the sixth, the external setting and internal relations of the prison.

The conceptualizations offered appear both comprehensive and stimulating. The report includes a heavy loading of references and many suggestions for further research. Needless to say, there are many implications resulting from these scholarly approaches to correctional institutions which apply to organizational life in such quite different settings as education, government, and industry.

Association Activities

CARL McDANIELS, EDITOR

The Branches in Highlight

The Suncoast Personnel and Guidance Association

THE SUNCOAST PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION is an offspring of the Guidance and Personnel Association of Pinellas County Schools which was organized in 1950. In the spring of 1959, the Executive Board of the Guidance and Personnel Association of Pinellas County Schools, realizing that the goals of guidance and counseling could be furthered by an affiliation with the American Personnel and Guidance Association, recommended that branch membership application procedures be initiated.

Necessary steps were taken to fulfill requirements for branch membership in the national organization. This resulted in the formation of a new Suncoast Personnel and Guidance Association which encompasses the seven-county "Suncoast" area of West Central Florida and the adoption of a constitution at the first fall meeting of 1959. At this time, the Executive Board was authorized to make formal application for a branch charter from the APGA. This charter was received by the local president, Fred W. Hoffman, Coordinator of Testing, Pinellas County Schools, at the 1960 APGA Convention in Philadelphia.

The program committee of this organization felt that with the increases in the area of the number of school guidance personnel, educational facilities, industrial expansion, and the chartering of Florida Presbyterian College and the University of South Florida, greater familiarity with these developments is highly desirable. Therefore, "Educational and Vocational Facilities on the Suncoast" was selected as the general program theme for the two succeeding years.

To give impetus and direction to this topic, the Superintendent of Pinellas County Schools, Mr. Floyd T. Christian, was asked to speak at the first meeting on the topic, "The Administrator Looks at the Guidance Program."

A major result of Mr. Christian's discussion was an evaluative study of the guidance programs in Pinellas County Schools. This self-scrutiny was jointly sponsored by NDEA and the Pinellas County Schools. This study consisted of three phases, the first of which was a self-evaluation designed to determine actual guidance services available in the schools. The second phase consisted of a county guidance workshop involving all counselors and secondary school administrators and having as its consultant, Dr. C. C. Dunsmoor, Director, Board of Cooperative Educational Services, Westchester County, New York.

The next step was a county evaluation by a visiting team of guidance specialists. Members of this group were: Chairman, Dr. Arthur A. Hitchcock, Executive Director of APGA; Dr. Harold F. Cottingham, Director, Department of Counseling and Guidance, Florida State University; Dr. Dorothy D. Hayes, Chairman, Graduate Program in Social Work, Florida State University; Dr. Frank L. Sievers, Chief, Guidance Counseling and Testing, U. S. Office of Education; and Dr. Robert O. Stripling, Head, Department of Personnel Service, University of Florida.

The 1960–1961 program continues with the development of the original theme musically paraphrased—"Getting to Know You." This has included a pre-school workshop designed to study adult and vocational education, a presentation by school psychologists concerning their tools and tech-

niques, two programs centered around higher education and held on the campuses of St. Petersburg Junior College and Florida Presbyterian College, and an industrial tour of the General Telephone Company conducted by its personnel department. One of the highlights has been a program entitled, "A Counselor as a Professional Person—What He Is and What He Does," presented by Dr. Daniel D. Feder, Dean of Students and Professor of Psychology, University of Denver, and President of APGA.

The announcement of the programs always appear in the monthly newsletter which is sent to members as well as other interested persons. There has been additional participation in the profession by the local association's acting as host for the 1951 and 1958 Florida Association of Deans and Counselors Workshop. Professional growth is further evidenced in that 51 per cent of the SPGA members belong to APGA. Last year eight of these APGA members attended the Philadelphia Convention. This year five members traveled to Denver.

Average meeting attendance has been 70 of the 92 total membership. The current SPGA officers are: *President*—Frances Hammond, Coordinator of Guidance, Southside Jr. High School, St. Petersburg; *President-Elect*—George Canfield, Coordinator of Guidance, Largo High School, Largo; *Secretary*—Ada Mae Bender, Counselor, Largo High School, Largo; *Treasurer*—George Farmer, Counselor, St. Petersburg High School, St. Petersburg; *Corresponding Secretary*—Barbara Brown, Counselor, Northeast High School, St. Petersburg.

The goal for the future is extended cooperative interaction among industry, education, and business in the "Suncoast" area.

American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS (AACRAO) was founded in 1910 as a means of exchange of information between Registrars and Admissions Officers. It developed from a membership of 24 people from 19 institutions to the present 1,570 members. In the course of its development, it came to represent colleges and universities throughout the country, and in its annual meetings gave an opportunity for exchange of ideas and information. Such information was printed in the *Bulletin,* subsequently changed to the *Journal,* which has since developed into *College and University.* This latter publication includes articles of general interest in the field of higher education as well as professional discussions.

The national Association encouraged the development of regional Associations and between these two types of associations there has been constant and increasingly valuable exchange. The Association has devoted itself to the development of suitable records and transcripts, to school and college relations, to professional development of the registrar and admissions officer, and to those details of the profession which are essential or desirable. The Association cooperates with other educational associations and seeks to maintain constant relations with these groups. At the present time, the activities are growing in number and scope as the functions of the registrar and admissions officer are enlarged.

The Constitution of AACRAO expresses its aims and purposes as follows: "The purpose of this Association shall be to promote the advancement of higher education in its fullest and broadest implications." Further, "This organization shall aim specifically to advance and professionalize the office or offices of admissions, registration, and records as established and authorized particularly in our member institutions as well as in other institutions worthily serving the cause of higher education. Any auxiliary educational activity directed toward the attainment of this aim is within the purpose of this Association. It is not an accrediting agency."

Membership in the Amercian Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers is on an institutional basis. Any institution of higher learning in the United States officially recognized by the U.S. Office of Education or foreign institutions approved by the executive committee of AACRAO are eligible for membership.

The publications of AACRAO are *College and University,* and pamphlets on Report of Credit Given, Methodology of Enrollment Projects, Retention of Records, Record and Transcript Guide, Migration of American College Students, Office Machine Equipment, Office Forms, Catalogues, Space Utilization. There are also pamphlets on education in certain foreign countries such as Germany, Canada, Korea, Thailand, and the Scandinavian countries. The Association also maintains a placement service for member institutions and for individuals.

Since admissions officers and registrars are constantly dealing with problems of personnel and guidance nature, there is steady cooperation with personnel and guidance people. The work done by APGA and done by AACRAO covers much of the same territory and it is to be anticipated that further and closer cooperation is desirable for both Associations.

Present officers are: *President*—Charles E. Harrell, Registrar, Indiana University, Bloomington; *President-Elect*—Ted McCarrel, Director of Admissions and Registrar, State University of Iowa, Iowa City; and *Secretary*—Hattie Jarmon, Executive Officer in Charge of Admissions, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

WHO'S WHO

and Where

We are eager to reflect in this column news of the professional activities and job changes of our members. Please keep us informed. Notices should be sent to the attention of the Assistant Editor.—Ed.

JAMES HATHHORN, former Director of Counseling at Oregon City, Oregon, and Director of Guidance for Power County, Idaho, is the new Men's Counselor in the Office of Student Affairs at the University of Nevada, Reno.

MORRIS KRUGMAN, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, New York City Board of Education, has been named to serve as Acting Associate Superintendent.

DONALD P. BERTSCH has joined the staff of Central Michigan University, Mt. Pleasant, as Personnel Counselor. Mr. Bertsch was formerly a Counselor at Eastern High School, Lansing, Michigan.

EDWIN T. CARINE, JR., Associate Dean of Admissions of Hofstra College, Hempstead, Long Island, New York, has been promoted to the position of Director of Admissions. Mr. Carine is President of the Long Island Personnel and Guidance Association.

BOYD R. SWEM who has retired as Director of Guidance, Middletown Public Schools, New York, is enjoying an extended trip abroad with his wife, Daisy.

EFTON A. STANFIELD was appointed Vice President, Personnel and Industrial Relations, Arkansas Valley Industries, Inc., Dardanelle, Arkansas, on November 1, 1960. Formerly he was Personnel Director and Management Consultant for the Lufkin Foundry and Machine Company, Lufkin, Texas.

LOUIS E. PRINE, formerly a Teacher at Athens and Urbana, Ohio, is now Director of Guidance and Counseling Services for the Anthony Wayne Schools, Whitehouse, Ohio.

WILLIAM C. COTTLE, Professor of Education and Assistant Director of the Guidance Bureau, The University of Kansas, Lawrence, will assume the position of Professor of Education and Director of the Counselor Education and Counseling Psychology Program at Boston College, Boston, Massachusetts, on September 1, 1961.

EDWARD C. BRYANT, Assistant Dean of Men, Boston University, was elected President of the Boston University Personnel and Guidance Association in January. He was formerly Treasurer of this Association.

BEATRICE J. DVORAK, Chief of the U. S. Employment Service Testing Division, received the Elmer G. Voight Award of the Education Council of the Graphic Arts Industry on January 17, 1961, in Chicago at the Annual Awards Ceremony which was held in conjunction with International Printing Week. The award was presented for her leadership in the development of aptitude test batteries for occupations in the printing industry.

Deceased:

GEORGE E. MYERS, Professor-Emeritus of the University of Michigan, in Washington, D. C., on January 9 at the age of 89 while attending the White House Conference on Aging, where he was serving as delegate from Kansas. A member of the staff of the University of Michigan from 1917 to 1942, Dr. Myers organized the Department of Industrial Education and served as Professor of Vocational Education and Guidance. Dr. Myers was President of NVGA in 1931-1932 and served as Associate Editor of the *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, early predecessor of the *Journal*. He was author of the well-known *Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance.*

The GAP Gage Our Vision is Showing Again

DINNY DUNSMOOR, DIRECTOR
APGA PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ADVANCEMENT PROGRAM

IN March, 1959, under the heading, "Let's Look Now, Our Professional Vision is Showing," we in this column were gravely concerned with the extent of the support for GAP, which was being evinced by our APGA membership at the time, and I quote: "The *professional vision* of far too many of our members is seemingly obscured or is at best, short-range . . . The picture is clear and unmistakable: APGAns by the thousand must tilt their professional vision upward and look to the shining stars if APGA is to meet the challenge of GAP today and of other major challenges of tomorrow . . . This is a time to think big and to be big . . . It is a time to look up, but to "dig down."

And now, some two years later as we have another check-up on our vision, we find that it is *showing again*, but this time, if I "read the cards" correctly, it is showing in a much more favorable and positive light than in 1959. There are several reasons for this observation. For one thing we were struggling at that time to get our membership up over 10,000 and we finally made it by Convention time. Today, as of the end of January, Assistant Director for Membership, Mary Janicke, informs me that our total will be over 13,500, another new high. This represents an increase of nearly 500 during December and January, two months which are customarily low in membership increase. It therefore appears we will come close to a total of 14,000 by the end of this fiscal year on April 30, 1961.

The past 90 days, too, have brought renewed interest in GAP. The response to our request for helping in meeting the "cash crisis" which we had to face on January 28, when $19,000 were needed was very good. It was not sufficient, however, to meet the $4,000 needed beyond the wiping out of our Construction Loan ($4,000), payment of the regular semi-annual installment of $7,500 on our mortgage loan (reducing the latter to $120,000), and the some $3,500 interest entailed. And so, we must continue unabated our drive for funds in the months ahead in order to "complete the completion," which we have so long been trying to do, in order to get our HQ building in the first class shape desired.

The 50 additional Life Subscriptions which became possible when we went to some 13,000 members in November are going rapidly—33 of them having been sold in the interim, with more requests coming in for them daily.

Branch gifts have been coming in much more regularly of late and netted us some $1,400 in cash during the past two months, with a considerable number of additional ones either promised or already in the making. It's "moving-up time" for the Branches and 23 of them have been doing just that in the past months. Some 88 Branches and Associations have made contributions to GAP, totaling about $14,000. All but a handful of the Branches have made at least some contribution to GAP, ranging from $10 to $1,245. An all-out attempt is projected for getting 100 per cent of them to make a GAP gift before the Convention.

The number of those who have made individual gifts to GAP is now approaching 2,000—a considerable increase during the past year and new ones are being added to the list daily. The "GAP March of Dollars" has just recently been launched and is bringing a fine response to date. Just think what even a single dollar from each of the 13,500 of us *now* would mean: It would reduce our loan by $13,500 and save us $742.50 interest this coming year, $1,485 interest over a two-year period.

The moral to our story is clear: We must "Catch the Cadence" and join the "GAP March of Dollars" to 1605 New Hampshire Avenue, N. W., Washington 9, D. C., NOW. Give a buck (s)—don't just pass the buck. Give a lot, give a little, but "for GAP's sake" give something.

Highlights of a One-Day N.D.E.A. Guidance Institute

REPORTED by CARRIE R. LOSI

A HIGHLY SUCCESSFUL guidance workshop for all Essex County guidance personnel was held on the campus of Montclair, New Jersey, State College, on May 25, 1960, as part of the state's NDEA institute activities. The workshop was lead off with a keynote address that was followed by eight small discussion meetings that proved professionally challenging and stimulating for the 200 guidance counselors, teachers, and administrators who attended. Discussion leaders and consultants were national authorities in guidance areas. A composite summary of the sessions was mimeographed and distributed to all who attended so that material covered in each of the group meetings was shared by all and used for follow-up in-service conferences in local schools. Some of the highlights of the discussion follow.

In the keynote address, Dr. Robert Hoppock, of New York University, on the topic "Guidance Today and Tomorrow," discussed major areas of concern for developing guidance programs:

1. Find out what you have been hired to do and what results your boss expects.
2. Don't try to do too much.
3. If there is more to do than you can get done comfortably, establish priorities. List your duties in order of their importance and get your boss's approval of this list.
4. What you do, do well.
5. Remember that the total faculty carries responsibility for the total educational program, including the guidance program. Your job is to help the faculty to do their job. It is not their job to help you do your job. Be on tap, not on top.
6. If your major responsibility is programming, catch the obvious mistakes and tell students about them.
7. If your major responsibility is college admissions, follow up your alumni, find out where they have gone, bring them back for group conferences with your present students, arrange tours of nearby campuses.
8. If your major responsibility is problem children, problem parents, and problem teachers, learn to listen. Reflect feelings. Try to understand. Get the facts. If anything obviously needs to be done, get it done. Don't expect miracles.
9. If your major responsibility is tests and records, do not collect so many data that you have no time left to use them. Take a good stiff course in test validation; use no test until you know its validity, the population on which it was validated, and the population on which the norms are based. Remember that the only test scores that mean much are those in the top and bottom 15 per cent of the distribution.
10. If your major responsibility is vocational counseling and placement, follow up your alumni, find out what jobs they got, bring them back for group conferences with your seniors. Plan tours of local plants. Cooperate with your State Employment Service. Start an elective course in occupations for seniors and prospective dropouts.
11. Evaluate what you do. Pause now and then to appraise it. Ask your students to appraise it. Ask your alumni, teachers, administrators, and parents for their appraisal. Whenever you can, set up simple, controlled experiments; find out if those you help do any better than those you let alone.

Dr. Harold Seashore, of the Psychological Corporation, on the topic "Interpretation and Use of Differential Aptitude Test Results" pointed out:

Test publishers have attempted in various ways to make it easier for test users to guard against their ascription of too great precision to any test score. When a profile of the DAT scores is plotted on the

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CARRIE R. LOSI, Director of Guidance, Newark, New Jersey, Public Schools, served as Chairman of the May, 1960, Guidance Workshop for Essex County guidance personnel.

standard form provided, there is a "rule of thumb" which says that if the difference in vertical distance on the graph between any two scores is less than one inch, there probably is no important difference in the abilities tested. All such devices are basically practical crutches. It is fundamental that all of us increase our sophistication about the meaning of test score reliability. We must learn to think habitually in terms of the standard error of measurement of test scores.

Dr. Emanuel Ehrlich, of Jersey City State College, on the topic "Effective Techniques for the Individual Interview" indicated:

Some of the elements to be considered include:

Three Main Functions—not mutually exclusive

1. To secure information—fact finding.
2. To give information—informing.
3. To motivate (some degree of therapy occurs).

Bernard Ireland, of New York College Entrance Examination Board, on the topic "Problems Related to College Admission," declared:

There are only about 35 colleges, the "most popular" institutions, which have three or more strong first-choice candidates for every place available and which may, therefore, deny admission even to some candidates who present virtually flawless combinations of qualifications. Even these colleges take some with average records and Board scores (Ten-college study: 49 per cent below 600; 12 per cent below 500). About 100 "next most popular" colleges are likely to take at least 75 per cent of all candidates who are pretty clearly qualified to do good work in those institutions; and about 500 others are likely to take almost all who seem reasonably sure to pass the work. About 1,200 others admit all applicants who are "qualified."

Dr. Charles Morris, of Columbia University Teachers College, on the topic "Providing for the Non-College Student," stated:

Our principal job is to make these non-college students feel that they are worth while and that we are interested in them. This mad rush for mathematics, etc., makes the non-college feel unwanted and that they don't count. Maybe need to overhaul the school. Let's not decide who is "college material" too soon.

Dr. Kirk Seaton, Special Services, State Department, on the topic "Identifying and Meeting the Needs of Atypical Pupils," indicated:

Assuming that the proper facts are known, *i.e.*, the most essential facts, assuming that they are recorded in a functional way, how much use of them can be made, and how effective are they in individualizing the average pupils' or the deviate pupils' educational experiences.

Dr. Esther Lloyd-Jones, of Columbia University Teachers College, on the topic "Characteristics of Effective Guidance Programs in Senior High Schools," pointed out:

The present social-cultural crisis in which everything is focused on education and the schools being expected to do something about it has created an atmosphere of anxiety. Will we be sufficiently strong to meet it? The result of this anxiety has been that curriculum people are working to revise and add to —also are working on "speed-ups."

A look at what we, as senior high school counselors, are asked to do, shows that we are expected to organize our work so as to: test, investigate, prescribe, and indicate quantity and rate of using what we prescribe, switch pupils, switch controls, etc. We can be likened to dispatchers, loaders, and gatekeepers (most valuable role now for colleges).

We are urged to:

1. See far horizons in the guidance field.
2. Try to determine the effectiveness of what we are doing.
3. Study how to make it more effective.
4. Realize that we can and will do more to be effective.

Dr. Martin Hamburger, of New York University, on the topic "Characteristics of Effective Guidance Programs in Junior High Schools," declared:

Briefly, an effective guidance program is one that has a good counselor.

Junior High Pictured as Educational "Hiatus"

1. Elementary and high school curricula viewed as intrinsically valuable.
2. Work in junior high is complex, youngsters need broad understandings.
3. Occupations should be taught as a liberal art.
   a. Occupations seen as intrinsically valuable—not as a means to occupational choice.
   b. In most cases six years remain until occupational choices are made.

May 1961

The Personnel and Guidance Journal

AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION

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a statement of policy . . .

The PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL is the official publication of the American Personnel and Guidance Association.

It seeks to help personnel and guidance workers in schools, colleges and universities, vocational counseling agencies, social agencies, business and industry, and government by keeping them informed of developments in the field.

The *Journal* is designed as a publication medium for articles dealing with significant practices in personnel and guidance work, current problems in the field, trends in training personnel and guidance workers, and theory and research that give promise of practical application.

As the official publication of the Association, the *Journal* presents Divisional and Branch news and programs, news about people and events in the field, and reports on Association activities.

Information for Contributors

This information is intended to assist contributors in the preparation of material to be submitted to the *Journal* and to inform them of the procedure followed in considering articles submitted for publication.

The *Journal* is designed as a publication medium for articles dealing with new and significant practices in personnel and guidance work, current problems in the field, trends in training personnel and guidance workers, theory, and research which relates to theory or which has promise of practical application. Articles in any of these areas are appropriate for submission to the *Journal*.

Clear and concise writing is a critical factor in determining acceptability of an article. Equally important are proper organization and logical development of ideas. Persons preparing articles for publication frequently find it useful to have their work reviewed by a competent person prior to submission. Articles reporting research should include a statement of the problem, description of study population and methodology, presentation and discussion of data, conclusions, and implications for practice.

Length of articles is, of course, related to economy, structure and organization, and clarity in writing. Probably no article should be less than a *Journal* page in length, about 750 words, and few articles should exceed 3,000 to 3,500 words. These are general rules, of course, and may not apply in individual instances, since a particular article may be well over 3,500 words and still be excellent material for the *Journal*.

All manuscripts must be submitted in original and one clear carbon. All material including title, author's name, and references must be double-spaced. Standard style practice in margination and in organization of references should be followed. (A convenient reference for many members is the American Psychological Association Publication Manual.) Footnotes should be avoided wherever possible. Articles not accepted for publication will be returned to authors, but carbons will be retained by the *Journal*.

All articles for the *Journal* should be addressed to The Editor, Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1605 New Hampshire Avenue, N. W., Washington 9, D. C., and will be acknowledged upon receipt. Following preliminary review by the Editor, articles will be sent to *Journal* reviewers, generally members of the Editorial Board, although in special instances, the services of consultants other than Editorial Board members will be secured. As is inevitable, this process takes time.

Articles not accepted after review will be returned for revision or rejected as unacceptable for the *Journal*. Suggestions for revision may present technical considerations or may refer to the need for change in structure, extensive editing, or condensation of excessively long manuscripts. Minor changes in expression or form are made by the Editor without consulting the author. In returning articles as unacceptable, the author will be given the reasons, as specifically as possible, for such action. Experience reveals that, generally, six weeks to two months may elapse between acknowledgement of receipt of article and notification concerning its disposition. An additional three to four months must be expected to elapse between notification of acceptance of article and its appearance in print. This publication lag is a result of the need to prepare issues considerably in advance, and to maintain balance of articles within an issue.

Proofs of articles accepted for publication are sent to authors approximately six weeks prior to appearance of the article in the *Journal* and must be returned promptly. Changes in galleys not due to printer's error should be avoided if at all possible. Cost of such changes are charged to the author.

Each author is furnished five copies of the issue of the *Journal* in which his article appears. Reprints are available at cost. A schedule of such costs is sent to the author with his proofs.—Ed.

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DEPARTMENTS

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How Parents Perceive the Counselor's Role

THIS IS a study of parents' perceptions of the role of the school counselor. The counselor's role, for purposes of this study, was limited to his involvement with pupils in situations growing out of anxieties, concerns, or needed information related to educational planning, vocational planning, and personal-emotional-social adjustment [1].

There is a paucity of information on how parents perceive the school counselor. Investigations of the school counselor's role have been primarily within-school studies.

In two previous studies, Grant [3, 4] investigated how students, and how teachers, administrators, and counselors themselves perceive the counselor's role. Grant found that all these categories of respondents perceived counselors as being of significant help to pupils with vocational and educational problems, but that none of the categories of respondents assigned counselors an important role in helping with personal-emotional problems. Houghton [5] also investigated the role of counselors as perceived by students, administrators, teachers, and counselors themselves. His results parallel those obtained by Grant.

Questions to which this study was directed are as follows: (1) Do parents of pupils who have had longer contacts with the school system (their children being in the higher grades) perceive the counselor as being more helpfully involved with their children than do parents of children who have had less contact with the school system (their children being in the lower grades)? (2) Do parents perceive the counselor as being more helpfully involved with their children than the best family friend?—than the principal of the school? (3) Do parents of children in higher grades demonstrate less variability in their perceptions of the role of the school counselor than do parents of children in lower grades? (4) Do parents perceive the counselor as being less helpfully involved with situations related to personal-emotional-social adjustment than with situations related to educational or vocational planning? (5) Are the perceptual sets of parents of the school counselor's role established prior to the time their children enter the secondary school program, *i.e.*, are there consistent differences in perceptions of sixth grade parents as contrasted with perceptions of parents in higher grades?

Procedure

Approximately 200 pairs of parents (N mothers = 187, N fathers = 179) in the community of Huntington, New York, were interviewed to obtain their perceptions of the role of school counselors. Fifty pairs of parents were selected from each of the sixth, eighth, tenth, and twelfth grades. They were matched on their children's general school performance, intelligence quotients, and on socio-economic standing. Also, none of these parents had or had had older children in the secondary school. The interview was built around an adaptation of the Gardner and Thompson Social Relations Scale [2].

Two kinds of parent responses were recorded: (1) free responses made in reply to questions of who could be of varying degrees of help to a child involved in specific situations, and (2) man-to-man comparisons consisting of placements of the school counselor on a frame of reference established by the free responses.

Free Responses. In keeping with the Gardner and Thompson Scale, each respondent established his own frame of ref-

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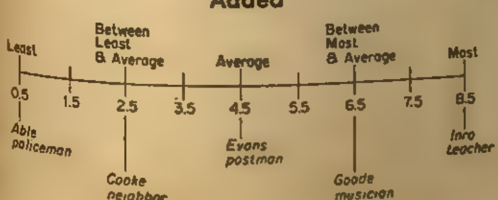
erence for each problem situation by nominating, in free response, people for five anchoring points on a blank scale. The first nomination was elicited by a consideration of the following statement: *Of all the people you know or ever have known, outside of yourself and members of your immediate family household, think of whom you would expect to be of most help to your child under these circumstances.* The respondent placed this person's name and occupation at the extreme right of the scale provided. He then responded to similar statements regarding who would be of *least, average, between least and average,* and *between most and average* help. Each continuum, when completed, had the general appearance of that shown in FIGURE 1.

Man-to-Man Comparisons. Following the establishment of a scale continuum for each problem situation, each parent was asked to refer back to the problems, and on each scale to rate, in turn, (1) his best family friend, (2) his child's school principal, and (3) his child's school counselor. Parents of sixth graders were asked to rate their expectations of a secondary school counselor. Each rating resulted from a series of three successive forced choices, involving three successive bisections of the scale. The first step was to have the parent place the person to be rated (ratee) either on the upper or on the lower half of the scale. The second step was to place the ratee either on the upper

FIGURE 1

A Typical Scale Continuum with Scale Values Added



or lower half of that section, and the third step was to place the ratee either on the upper or lower half of the division selected in the second choice.

From this procedure the ratings of the best family friend, the school principal, and school counselor were obtained. The scale values ranged from 0.5 (least helpful) to 8.5 (most helpful), with the median at 4.5 (average help).

The specific problem situations used in this study were:

Educational

Your son (daughter) would like to find out the requirements for admission to a college in the Middle West.

Your son's (daughter's) school grades have fallen down recently.

Vocational

Your son (daughter) is trying to make up his mind about the work for which he is best suited.

Your son (daughter) is concerned over what abilities he really has, that he may use in his future life's work.

Personal-Emotional-Social

Your son (daughter) is finding that he is having more and more trouble in making new friends.

Your son (daughter) feels that he is daydreaming too much in school.

Results

In establishing the scale continua for each problem situation the subjects were asked to name any person they wished, with the exception of themselves and members of their households, to represent the five scale positions presented in FIGURE 1. The investigators were interested in determining the frequency with which the counselor would be "freely" nominated and the relative position on this scale to which he would be assigned. TABLE 1 presents frequencies of nomination for each of the grade levels and in each of the problem areas.

TABLE 2 presents data indicating the relative scale value assignments given counselors by parents of each grade level and in

TABLE 1

Frequencies and Proportions of Nominations Naming the School Counselor as a Person Who Helps the Child

Problem Area	*Grade Level*	*Total Possible Responses (N)*	*All Free Responses (f)*	*Proportion ($p = f/N$)*	*Ratio D/σ_{D_p}*
Educational	6	180	38	0.211	...
	8	188	75	0.399	3.91*
	10	184	99	0.538	2.68*
	12	180	118	0.656	2.30†
Vocational	6	180	67	0.372	...
	8	188	80	0.426	1.06
	10	184	101	0.549	2.37†
	12	180	105	0.583	0.65
Personal-Emotional-Social	6	180	15	0.083	...
	8	188	43	0.229	3.83*
	10	184	49	0.266	0.83
	12	180	58	0.322	1.17

* Significant at the 0.01 level.
† Significant at the 0.05 level.

each of the problem areas, based on "free" nominations.

TABLE 3 presents data indicating the mean scale value assignments and their variances given counselors, principals, and friends by parents of each grade level and in each problem area. The counselors', principals', and best family friends' ratings were obtained by asking each parent to place these people on the scale continua which he had established in each problem area (see FIGURE 1).

The data in this study were used in testing five questions, as follow:

1. *Do parents of pupils in higher grades perceive counselors to be more helpful than do parents of pupils in lower grades?* Referring to the data provided in

TABLE 2

Frequencies of Nominations of Counselors to Each of Three Relative Positions on the Scale

Problem Area	*Grade Level*	*Below Average*	*Average*	*Above Average*	*All Free Responses*
Educational	6	2	3	33	38
	8	1	8	66	75
	10	1	7	91	99
	12	2	11	105	118
TOTALS		6	29	295	330
Vocational	6	0	5	62	67
	8	0	4	76	80
	10	2	7	92	101
	12	3	12	90	105
TOTALS		5	28	320	353
Personal-Emotional-Social	6	0	7	8	15
	8	1	4	38	43
	10	1	11	37	49
	12	3	5	50	58
TOTALS		5	27	133	165

TABLES 1 and 2 it is immediately observable that moving from lower to higher grade levels a greater proportion of parents nominated the counselor (free choice nomination) as a helpful person. In the area of educational problems there was a significant increase in frequency of nominations between each step of the four grade levels. While significant increases were not continuous between each step of the four grade levels in the areas of vocational and personal-emotional-social problems, the overall trend was one of increase in responses. Parents of twelfth graders made a significantly greater proportion of free responses naming the counselor in each of the three problem areas than did parents of sixth graders or parents of eighth graders.

The data also show that when the counselor was nominated he was seldom named as a person of below average help and was most frequently named as a person of above average help (see TABLE 2).

Further information on this question is available from data included in TABLE 3. These data were obtained by having parents assign the counselors to scale positions. The analysis of variance procedure indicates that the mean scale positions assigned counselors by parents of sixth graders and parents of pupils in the secondary school grades were not significantly different in any of the problem areas. Nor were there significant differences between mean ratings among the three secondary school grades.

Thus while the counselor is named with increasing frequency by parents from lower to higher grade levels, assigned scale values of helpfulness do not differ from grade to grade.

2. *Do parents perceive a school counselor to be of more help than a person whom they consider to be of average help?* The mean ratings received by counselors were compared with the rating of 4.5, which is at the point where respondents named the person whom they considered to be of average help. This was done, in the case of each problem area, by determining the lower confidence limit of each mean rating at the 0.01 level of significance and comparing the value for the lower limit with the rating of 4.5.

At each grade level, and for each problem area, the lower limit exceeded the score of 4.5. In the areas of educational and vocational problems, the lower limits at each grade level exceeded the rating of 6.5, the position of the person who had been named

TABLE 3

Mean Ratings and Variances of Ratings Made of Counselors, Principals and Friends

	Counselor M	Counselor s^2	Principal M	Principal s^2	Friend M	Friend s^2
Grade Six						
Educational	7.13	1.53	6.50	2.11	4.52	3.84
Vocational	7.43	1.49	5.89	2.83	4.79	3.43
Personal	6.38	3.03	5.65	2.64	5.11	2.94
Grade Eight						
Educational	7.36	1.38	7.09	1.27	4.59	3.58
Vocational	7.24	2.20	6.35	2.14	5.14	3.27
Personal	6.60	2.00	5.88	2.19	5.42	3.21
Grade Ten						
Educational	7.56	0.94	6.35	2.07	4.13	3.82
Vocational	7.37	1.59	5.70	2.76	4.92	3.88
Personal	6.56	2.11	5.16	3.08	5.09	3.38
Grade Twelve						
Educational	7.53	1.66	6.68	2.04	4.24	3.37
Vocational	7.36	2.16	6.03	2.83	4.95	3.89
Personal	6.69	2.52	5.47	2.86	5.22	3.14

as being *between average and most* on the scale.

3. *Do parents of pupils in higher grades demonstrate less variability in their perceptions of the role of school counselors than do parents of pupils in lower grade levels?* The variances of ratings made by parents in each of the problem areas were determined at each grade level (see TABLE 3). First, an application of Snedecor's *F* test indicated that, at the 0.05 level of significance, the variance of ratings made by the parents of the sixth graders was not greater than the variance of the ratings made by the parents of the secondary school pupils. Further, there was no evidence of a distinguishable pattern of decrease in variances of parents' ratings from lower to higher grade levels.

4. *How do parents compare the helpfulness of the best family friend and of the school principal with the helpfulness of the school counselor?* At each grade level, the mean ratings received by best family friends in each problem area were compared with the mean ratings received by school counselors. The significance of differences was tested by determining the standard error ratio. In each case the counselor received a higher mean rating, and in each case, the difference was significant at the 0.01 level.

Likewise, the mean ratings received by school principals were compared with the mean ratings received by school counselors. In all but one case (eighth-grade parents' ratings on educational problems) the mean rating received by counselors was significantly higher, at the 0.01 level, than the rating received by school principals.

5. *Do parents consider counselors to be less helpful with personal-emotional-social problems than with educational or vocational problems?* The mean rating received by counselors in helping with personal-emotional-social problems was compared with the mean rating received in helping with educational and with vocational problems. At each grade level the mean ratings received by counselors in the areas of educational problems and vocational problems was greater than the mean ratings in the area of personal-emotional-social problems. Significance of differences was tested by determining the standard error ratio; at each grade level the differences were significant at the 0.01 level.

Discussion

In determining how parents in one community perceive the role of school counselors with regard to helpfulness to children experiencing educational, vocational, and personal-emotional-social problems, the findings may be summarized in several general statements. In general, this study showed that parents in one community, by their free responses and their ratings on scales, perceive counselors to be helpful to their children. They perceive counselors to be more helpful than people who are of average help, more helpful than their best family friends, and more helpful than their school principals. The perceptions of the role of school counselors are similar in level of helpfulness and in variability at the various grade levels. They perceive counselors to be more helpful with problems in educational and vocational areas than with problems in personal-emotional-social areas.

The ratings of counselors made by parents of sixth-graders were unexpectedly high and demonstrated no greater variability than the ratings made by parents in higher grade levels. Using the best family friend as a comparison figure (see TABLE 3), it is readily observable from comparing the relative size of the variances that the perception of the counselor as a helping person is considerably more "jelled" than are perceptions of the best family friend as a helping person.

It is apparent that there is an early establishment of a perceptual set of the role of the school counselor. The relative constancy of scores made by parents in the successive years reflects a fulfillment of the established set. Thus, the expectations of sixth-grade parents with regard to the role of the school counselor are apparently in keeping with the realities of the perceptions of parents of secondary school pupils. In the community in which this study was made, the counseling program has been long established; there has been a good public relations program, and the community is

relatively compact, offering a good medium for the exchange of information among families with children in various grade levels. In other communities, other results might be obtained.

Summary

A study of parents' perceptions of the role of school counselors in a selected community was made by interviewing 187 mothers and 179 fathers of children in grades six, eight, ten, and twelve. Two types of responses were obtained, (1) free response nominations of people who would be of varying degrees of help to a child facing each of six problem situations and (2) ratings of counselors on the frames of reference established by the free response nominations. It was found that parents of sixth-grade pupils had high expectations of the role of secondary school counselors and that the perceptions of parents of secondary school pupils of the role of school counselors did not vary significantly from these expectations. The variability of ratings made by parents, in their perceptions of the role of school counselors, did not follow a distinguishable pattern among the four grade levels. Parents perceived school counselors to be more helpful than best family friends and more helpful than school principals. It was also found that parents at all four grade levels perceived school counselors to be more helpful with educational and vocational problems than with personal-emotional-social problems.

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NEW N.E.A. BOOKLET ON PROFESSIONAL SALARIES FOR TEACHERS

Professional Salaries for Professional Teachers is a new 24-page booklet from the National Education Association's Committee on Education Finance giving figures on teachers' salaries throughout the country and comparing these salaries with those of other professions. The booklet which has been prepared for use locally with both professional and lay groups makes a number of recommendations for establishing a professional salary level for teachers. Among these are: a higher starting salary which will make selective recruitment possible; greater financial recognition for advanced education; more substantial annual salary increases; and maximum salaries that compete with other professions. Also discussed is where the money will have to come from.

The booklet is available at $1.00 for 10 copies from NEA, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Student Personnel Work—*Future Trends*

W. M. WISE

IT IS FASHIONABLE these days in the circles of higher education to look toward the future. Perhaps never before have so many college presidents and other members of the academic community spent such a large proportion of their time, and given such a central place in their public statements, to exploring what the next few years will bring to colleges and universities. This is heartening and it may also prove useful. In this ferment of anticipation what are the prospects for student personnel work in higher education?

A fruitful discussion of the future of student personnel work would seem to result if one followed Walpole's advice, "Prognostics do not always prove prophecies,—at least the wisest prophets make sure of the event first." Thus, the central points which follow draw attention to developments already in progress and attempt to show their importance for the decade into which we have just moved.

Only a few developments are discussed. The hope is that these are important ones, but no claim is made that others not treated are unimportant. The selection of those discussed is personal and is based on the assumption that events general to higher education will more powerfully affect the student personnel field than will specific developments of thought or technique within the field.

If one looks at education in general in the United States and attempts to select the most powerful events which will affect the future, he has the possibility of choosing from an array of happenings. There is, for instance, the continuation of extension of educational opportunity to increasing numbers of the population. While this development was accelerated in the United States almost a century ago it has not yet reached the completion of its cycle, and it will affect the happenings of the next decade.

Certain groups in our population including the non-white, the low-income, and some religious-racial groups will have educational opportunities extended to them in increasing numbers but this is not likely to affect greatly our work during the next decade. Some regions are especially occupied with the difficult problem of extending educational opportunities to groups which heretofore have not had much chance for self-development. I do not underestimate the influence of this event upon the next decade but the results of the past five years suggest that such extension of opportunities will be extremely gradual and generally will not greatly affect student personnel work. This evaluation of a very important development may come as somewhat of a surprise but in my judgment the next decade will see no profound influences on our field generated from this desirable change.

Marriage on Campus

There are other aspects of the extension of educational opportunity which will have more profound effects upon our field and which were reported about two years ago in a review of demographic data about college students in America [*6*]. The most striking aspect of the extension of educational opportunity, which was revealed in the data collected, was the increasing numbers of older and married students who are attending American colleges. The presence of such students represents an essentially new

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force on the campus in ways in which other groups do not. Their expectations of good teaching and personnel work vary greatly from expectations of the adolescents who attend colleges. Their attitudes vary substantially from those of the late adolescent. Studies of the veterans of the Second World War who enrolled as college students substantiate these points almost beyond question.

Recent data indicate that about one out of four students in American colleges and universities is married and that only slightly more than half of the regularly enrolled students are of the typical college age, that is 18 to 21 inclusive [*1*]. Study of college students indicates that the group which is increasing most rapidly in proportion to the total student population of American colleges and universities is women over the age of 30. During a recent eight-year period the actual numbers of such students in our colleges and universities more than doubled as contrasted with the increase in the total student population of about 50 per cent. During this same period the numbers of men students over age 30 also increased substantially.

The reason that the effects of increasing numbers of older and married students on the whole college program, including student personnel work, is likely to be greater than the effects of the increase in the numbers of non-white or lower income students upon our programs is a simple one. In most instances the additional enrollment of non-white students or those from lower socio-economic groups involves the process wherein these additional students accept almost without question the mores, the social customs, and the academic expectations of the majority group. This is because these "new" students have a great wish to adapt themselves into the mold which they perceive as a majority culture.[1]

The same phenomenon is not in evidence among older, married students who come in increasing numbers to our campuses. They are much less willing to adapt themselves into a mold already formed. They expect to carry out interests which are already developed, modes of life already established, and academic expectations which vary considerably from that of the late adolescent group which may have dominated the college or university previously. In effect, they form a more powerful social influence on the campus—one that cannot be stifled by the presence of a majority culture of younger students (nor, indeed, even by faculty culture).

Who Are the Students?

A second major development, which has already occurred and about which most of us are aware, is the substantial shift in academic interests among college and university students in the United States. That colleges are aware of this was shown by response to letters which were sent to more than 150 representative colleges and universities throughout the United States in the fall of 1957 asking for specific data about the characteristics of the students enrolled in each of these institutions. It is interesting to note, but not central to the discussion, that only two of the institutions so selected could provide comprehensive and detailed data about their own students. The remainder of the institutions either had not collected adequate data about their students or, more commonly, had not organized their data-collecting and data-processing procedures so that they could provide to others, or indeed form for their own information and action, an adequate description of the students then attending their institutions.

Since most of these colleges and universities could not supply specific data about their students, they relieved what must have been some embarrassment on their part by supplying gratuitously some comments about the students then enrolled. Almost two-thirds of these institutions commented that they felt the "quality" of their students had improved during the previous five years, that is, from 1952 to 1957. Several cited increases in the average scores made on entrance examinations, others cited the com-

[1] Whether the enrollment of a few white students in a college formerly restricted to Negroes represents a different phenomenon has, so far as I can determine, not been studied.

ments of professors who noted increased student commitment to try to earn high grades or to undertake difficult reading assignments.

A few universities have systematically studied their students and are able to form rather positive conclusions about the difference in the ability of students to undertake their instructional programs. In a study conducted at Stanford University covering the period from 1951–1956 a report of student selection closes on the note that, "Actually the most dramatic result of the two admissions studies resides not in the correlations and predictive values they disclosed, but in the radical increase in the ability levels of the entering freshmen class within five years' time. The change in ability levels between the classes entering in 1951 and 1956, as measured by the College Board aptitude test, was so great that the lower half of the class entering in 1951 simply would not have been admitted in 1956. That trend will continue and grow even stronger in the years ahead, so that by present standards, nearly all of our students in the years to come will be gifted if not outstanding" [*2, p. 34*].

Not all universities and colleges report the same experience as Stanford, but a remarkably high proportion of them report similar developments. These developments seemed contrary to the general public notion of the quality of students in our colleges and universities and are also contrary to the occasional outbursts of enraged teachers in our institutions who indicate that students these days cannot read or write, or that they appear disinterested in courses which they pursue.

While it is impossible to compare with any degree of accuracy the "ability" of today's college and university students with those of 50 years ago, a strong case could be made to support the opinion that today's college students are more able (at least in some respects) than those of half a century ago. In addition, there is considerable evidence to suggest that they bring more serious attitudes to their academic work than did the students of the previous period.

There are those like David Riesman who feel that most of our college and university students "decide in the college environment how much to 'produce' much as the factory workers in a factory decide how much to produce" [*5, p. 9*]. Professor Riesman goes on to say that in his opinion most students decline to be known as "rate busters" much as most factory workers producing Fords in Detroit would decline to be known as such.

If Professor Riesman's analysis is correct, and there are very serious questions about it, at least the "rates" which students decline to "bust" have gone up markedly.

Toward Higher Standards

It seems more likely that students in the American college are less bound than previously by the standards of the majority student culture. Certainly there is little evidence to suggest that many American colleges and universities have a rigid system of student cultural control as was evidenced in the days of "The Gentleman's C" at Harvard less than half a century ago. The comments of President Lowell as he describes his attempt to make it socially acceptable to earn an "A" at Harvard illustrate the previous power of the student culture [*4*]. Today's college students seem much less dependent on such group standards. There is a remarkable increase in seriousness with which college students approach their academic work. Accompanying this is a new sense of cooperation between students and faculty, at least when one contrasts the present faculty-student relations with those of the 19th century, and earlier, in American higher education [*3*].

But the development outlined briefly above is not the only one which bears on the same topic. Most of us who work in colleges and universities are not so insulated from the developments in the lower schools of America so as to have missed what is becoming a general trend toward "tightening up" the curriculum and raising of the expectations of students in our elementary and secondary schools. In many of our public schools the change has been remarkable in the past two years. The increase in the amount of homework assigned, the de-

creased emphasis on extracurricular activities, and the increase in the use of drill are some of the changes which one can observe at work. This is the development in lower education which will soon profoundly affect our work at the college level. Certainly within 10 years, and most likely within three or four, students will be entering our colleges and universities with previous school experience which, for many of them, has been substantially different from the school experience of students entering during the past decade.

It is difficult to predict exactly how these attitudes will be expressed as the students move into higher education. It is possible that students may exhibit antagonism to academic work as a result of the pressure which they have felt in the lower schools. They may come thirsting for freedom from the drudgery of study.

However, the experience with college students who have come from elementary and secondary schools which have in the past emphasized high academic achievement suggests that students from the new schools in America will be capable of and willing to undertake intensive and extensive academic work at the college level.

The Sought After Faculty

Viewed in relation to college students in many other countries, students in American colleges and universities exhibit an amazing amount of regard for and trust in the faculty and staff of the colleges and universities which they attend. The contrast is not well understood in our own country. This phenomenon which is so widespread, in spite of headline-making exceptions to it, has apparently been growing. Counseling centers in American colleges and universities report that many students want their services and the waiting lists extend for many weeks ahead. In addition, teachers in colleges and universities have a rather general observation that they cannot see all the students who wish to confer with them privately in their offices.

This development is in marked contrast with the conditions which prevailed less than a century ago in American higher education. But the development has been largely obscured for those of us in student personnel work because we have been busy reading the literature in our field. The standard books which describe student personnel work in American universities were developed as a result of thought during the late twenties and early thirties. In addition, they have been profoundly influenced by psychologists who wished to dramatize the contribution which that field might make to student affairs work in higher education. Almost all of the works published in the student personnel field, beginning with the articles in professional magazines of the middle twenties and extending for 30 years afterward, either imply or actually state that one of the principal reasons for the development of student personnel work is the lack of close relationships between students and faculty. They usually attribute this to the fact that American higher education borrowed from German scholasticism, with its emphasis upon research and scholarship and its disinterest in the personal lives of the students, in the latter half of the 19th century.

In effect the literature recommends that because the teachers are not interested in students and do not enjoy close relationships with them, the student personnel workers must jump into this breach.

It may be that the period at the beginning of the development of modern student personnel work was so characterized. If that is so it does not prevail today. A long look at the history of relationships between students and faculty in American higher education suggests that never before in the history of colleges and universities in our country have students and faculty enjoyed such amiable relationships as they do today. Today's students seem remarkably disposed to accept advice from faculty members as 18th and 19th century students did not.

This development in America is not an unmixed blessing, but it does affect our work and will continue to do so during the next decade. If student personnel workers fail to change their "tune"—that is, stop accusing fellow faculty members of being

German scholastics—they will miss great opportunity for service to college and university communities. Indeed, there may well be a need to alert students to the fact that faculty members and student personnel workers are not faultless sources of information, advice, and counseling. The students may be too disposed to depend upon these sources of help and perhaps students should be urged to become more independent.

Which Way Student Personnel Funds

Recently several assertions have been made that, with prospects for increasing enrollments and lagging budgets in higher education, student personnel work must face a period during which it will receive less than an adequate share of institutional budgets. Is this pessimistic point of view supported by examination of trends in budgets of colleges and universities?

Factual data about university and college budgets is difficult to interpret and compare with previous periods. There is no standard system of accounting used in all colleges and universities. In addition, several institutions of higher education seem actively engaged in confusing those who wish to study their institutional budgets. As an example I would cite several ways in which colleges and universities disguise the true budgets which they expend upon personnel who work in college housing. Most of this is not intended to deliberately mislead those who wish to study such matters, but is instead a problem of faulty accounting procedures and the lack of standardized accounting practices among institutions.

Examination of college and university budgets indicates that during the past 25 years the greatest change in the allocation of annual budgets within these institutions has been the remarkable rise in the proportion of funds devoted to "administration and non-instructional services."[2] This latter category covers a multitude of activities, and not all of it can be laid to the developments in the student personnel field, but we have had a considerable share of this increase in the "non-instructional" budget.

The examination cited above covers only part of the development since much of the student personnel work of a college or university is not separately budgeted but consists instead of the effort of individual faculty members to accomplish the purposes to which we are devoted. In this connection, the rise in the amount of faculty time, and in some cases actual budget, devoted to student advising and counseling represents one of the major developments since World War II. During the past two years I have visited several American universities whose administrators, on the surface, claim that they do not believe in the recent developments in student personnel work. Most of them take considerable pride in pointing out that they have resisted all of the efforts by colleges and "misguided" persons who wish to impose upon their college a non-intellectual atmosphere through the introduction of specialized services. Many of these same institutions, upon closer examination, have developed elaborate systems of participation by faculty members and others in offering a student personnel program to their students. To cite an example, Yale University has for more than 30 years devoted much attention to the development of its residential college program. This consists of several rather autonomous living and teaching units within the university, each of them housing 200 and 400 students. I do not know how one would allocate the amount of budget of Yale University which is devoted to its "student personnel program," but superficial examination convinces me that if the faculty time and leadership of the Masters of the colleges and the amount of building space devoted to student personnel activities could be accurately calculated Yale may, perhaps, have one of the best supported student personnel programs in the United States.

Those in the field who forecast a decline in budget support for our activities have not adequately considered the full range of evidence which is available. Although the actual forms and practices of student personnel work may change during the next dec-

[2] This rubric is by no means in universal use, but is illustrative of the terms commonly used in college and university budgets.

ade, the amount of attention, and therefore of budget, which will be given these concerns by the universities will increase. Even if the universities did not wish this to be so, students, parents, and the general public would demand further development of these activities.

For the Future

I am impressed with what I perceive is a general tendency in our field to plan ahead by looking backward. And I might even add not very far backward, only into the middle of the 1920's. We have failed to give careful attention to the historical roots out of which our work has developed[8] and at the same time have failed to give sufficient attention to the important new developments which will profoundly affect our field. One of the reasons is that for more than 30 years we have been embarked on what seems to us a "movement." Part of the result of this approach has been to develop what could be called a "cult" of student personnel work. This is isolated from many of the central influences in American education, particularly higher education. It has made the past seem irrelevant and the future antagonistic. We have been more interested in "consolidating our position" than in exploring new dimensions.

Being rooted so deeply in immediate purposes student personnel work is in danger of becoming "dated" in assessment of opportunities for creative innovations. The most serious danger is that programs and purposes more appropriate for the past two decades than for the decade ahead will be developed.

[8] There are exceptions to this, but they are all too rare. See the work of W. H. Cowley, W. W. Blaesser, Ruth Barry, Beverly Wolf, and Eugenie Leonard.

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LISTING OF PUBLICATIONS ON CHILD PROTECTION

A listing of 17 publications on child protection is available from the Children's Division of the American Humane Association, 896 Pennsylvania Street, Denver 3, Colorado. Ranging in price from $.05 to $2.00, the publications describe the concepts, principles and practices of child protection services. The most recent title is *A Voluntary Agency Adds Child Protective Services*, showing how a voluntary agency found addition of a child protective function to be fully compatible with its other services to children.

Barriers to Effective Rehabilitation:

COUNSELOR OPINION

JOHN E. MUTHARD and MARCELINE E. JAQUES

THIS STUDY investigates counselor thinking about the barriers to improving client services in rehabilitation settings. In effect, it points to those deficiencies or present circumstances which counselors believe need re-examination and possibly modification. It presumes that counselors, as a group which has primary responsibility for client services, have understandings and knowledge which can contribute to improving both the quality of rehabilitation services and the number served. No studies of this type have been reported in the literature of rehabilitation.

Sample

The sample of rehabilitation counselors for this study is essentially the same as that described by Jaques [4]. It includes 282 state DVR counselors and 54 counselors who work in other rehabilitation settings, including VA hospitals, VA regional offices, Jewish Vocational Service, and other private agencies. The characteristics of this population are described in detail by Jaques. The sample represents about 10 per cent of the estimated total population of counselors in the United States [3]. Since they come from 20 different states and in a number of instances represent all or most of the counselors of the states which participated, there is reason to believe that this group is a representative sample of the rehabilitation counseling profession.

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Procedures

The data were collected between June, 1957, and March, 1958, in conjunction with the securing of critical incidents. Each counselor responded in a group interview session to the question, "What in your opinion are some of the factors that stand in the way of doing the best kind of rehabilitation job with clients?" This question was part of the booklet in which counselors wrote the critical incidents and their personal data. Subsequent to the group interviews, there was an opportunity in individual sessions, ranging from 15 to 45 minutes, to clarify any statements which the respondent had made. In most instances this was done for the question which is the focus of this study.

The statements were taken from the booklets and placed on cards. The counselor responses were divided into idea units. That is, when the counselors' statements dealt with a separate thought, they were listed on individual cards; in those instances in which the counselor merely amplified a thought, this was incorporated with the thought to which it was related. Some examples of idea units are: "lack of any training facilities," "too large an area geographically," and "too many duties not pertaining to counseling." To bring order and meaning to the 1,142 statements which were taken from the counselor responses, it was necessary to develop a systematic procedure of content analysis.

The development of the category system used to classify a counselor's opinion went through several stages. Items were first grouped on a common sense basis. Examination of these groupings suggested that a useful and comprehensive rationale for studying the counselor responses would be

to analyze them in terms of the locus of the difficulty as seen by the counselor. The categories developed are listed and described by TABLE 1. The sub-categories were, by and large, suggested by the data, but the labels and organization reflect the psychological frame of reference of the investigators whose major concern is training. The system developed had a total of 72 headings.

To test the degree of reliability with which counselor statements could be classified within this system, the investigators judged a random sample of 224 counselor statements. There was 83.5 per cent complete agreement between the two judges and 4.9 per cent total disagreement in the classification of idea units. This was deemed a high enough level of reliability to justify application of the system to the entire set of statements.

The investigators made independent classifications of each card to assign the remaining statements to categories. In those instances in which there was partial or total disagreement, the judges discussed the item and arrived at a pooled rating. A similar procedure was used with the statements in the reliability sample.

After each item was classified the results were prepared for tabulation and analysis by IBM procedures. Each counselor was recorded as either expressing or not expressing ideas classifiable under each of the 72 categories and sub-categories. When a counselor made two or more statements which belonged in the same category they were counted as one item. This was done to permit discussion of the findings in terms of the proportion of counselors expressing concerns in each classification.

The results were tabulated for all counselors on each of the 72 classifications and were also recorded for three counselor characteristics—counselor type, experience, and training—on the five major categories. The two counselor types were State DVR Counselors and Other Counselors. The former were the vocational rehabilitation counselors employed by state agencies. The latter included counselors from VA hospitals and regional offices, Jewish Vocational Service agencies, and other private agencies. In the two experience groups those having five or more years of counseling experience were the Experienced; the Inexperienced were those with four years or less experience. Trained counselors included persons with the M.A. degree in rehabilitation counseling, counseling and guidance, psychology, and social work as well as all persons with Ph.D. or Ed.D. degrees in education, psychology, or counseling and guidance. The Somewhat Trained counselor group comprised those counselors with M.A. degrees in education, sociology, or anthropology, school administration, and personnel or public administration. The Untrained group included all other counselors. For the most part, this group was made up of persons with college degrees or with some graduate training. Further descriptions of these classes can be found in the Jaques monograph.

Results

The number of idea units contributed by each counselor ranged from one to ten with a mean of 3.40 units. More idea units were listed by State DVR Counselors (3.50) than Other Counselors (2.87). There were no marked differences between the mean number of responses by different training or experience subgroups.

From TABLE 1 the reader can see how the responses of the total counselor population were distributed.

Comparisons of the responses of Trained and Untrained counselors are summarized in TABLE 2. In addition to analyzing these differences, comparisons were made between the DVR counselor and other counselor groups and the Experienced and Inexperienced subgroups. In reading TABLE 2, the first entry reads as follows: Of the 83 trained counselors in our sample, 34.9 per cent cited ideas which mention self-deficiencies of the counselor as barriers to effective rehabilitation. The results for Somewhat Trained was 25.7 per cent and for Untrained 35.0 per cent. One reads TABLE 3 in a similar fashion. The statistical test used for studying the differences discussed below was Chi-Square. The 0.05 level of

TABLE 1

The Classifications Used to Order Rehabilitation Counselor Opinions Regarding Barriers to Effective Rehabilitation and the Percentage of Counselors Citing Ideas Within Each Class (Number of Counselors—336)

Per cent	*Classification*
33.0	I. Self (counselor)
11.3	A. Lack of education or training
0.6	1. Graduate education
3.9	2. Inservice training
8.5	3. Unspecified
19.3	B. Lack of knowledge and skill
5.6	1. Vocational information (includes training facilities and opportunities, job possibilities, and job placement)
3.7	2. Social-psychological aspects of disability (personality theory, individual differences, behavior disorders, CNS disorders, speech disorders, etc.)
3.0	3. Testing and evaluation (psychological and other, except medical)
1.5	4. Physical aspects of disability (includes medical information and reports)
1.2	5. Community resources
4.2	6. Counseling theory and technique
4.2	7. Lack of skills and knowledge (non-specific, case load management, general)
1.5	C. Lack of experience
6.0	D. Personal inadequacies
2.1	1. Inadequate relationship with client
3.3	2. Personality inadequacies
0.9	3. Philosophy of rehabilitation
0.3	4. Other
10.4	II. Client
4.2	A. Lack of motivation (includes all types of apathy, resistance, unwillingness, or inability to change life situation, *e.g.*, hospitalitis)
1.8	B. Personal maladjustment
1.8	C. Lack of education
4.5	D. Other deficiencies
10.1	III. Supervisor
4.2	A. Lack of supervision
5.3	B. Quality of supervision
1.5	C. Counselor-supervisor relationship
81.2	IV. Employing agency
19.3	A. Lack of funds and facilities
14.0	1. Funds for services
6.5	2. Facilities for counseling (inadequate space and lack of privacy)
41.4	B. Administrative policy and procedures
2.7	1. Administrative practices and behavior (those items attributed to administrators as individuals)
39.3	2. Agency regulations and policies
8.6	a. General
12.2	b. Personnel
2.1	(1) General (dissatisfaction with "working conditions")
2.7	(2) Salaries
3.6	(3) Too few counselors
1.2	(4) Selection (deficiencies in staff-training or experience)
4.2	(5) Lack of clerical and secretarial help
6.2	c. Client services (difficulty in initiating, giving, and completing services to clients)
	(restrictions imposed regarding who should receive services and what these services should be)
22.0	d. Emphasis on reports and records (red tape and paper work)
2.7	e. Other (research, follow-up, non-specific)
64.9	C. Counselor assignments and work expectancies

(*Continued*)

TABLE 1 (*Continued*)

Per cent	*Classification*
26.2	1. Case load too large
5.4	2. Territory size limits frequency of client-counselor meetings
22.0	3. Lack of time
13.4	a. For counseling activities (include all aspects of counseling process)
6.8	b. For developing employer and community relations
1.5	c. For self-improvement as a counselor
2.1	d. Non-specific
27.1	4. Agency emphasis on numbers of rehabilitations (quota, numbers, closures, quantity vs. quality)
14.0	5. Definition of counselor role (too many diverse duties and work demands)
46.4	V. Community resources
29.2	A. Lack of facilities, services, or professional workers (availability and quality)
2.7	1. Psychiatric, psychological or social services or workers
10.4	2. Training facilities (schools or facilities for education and vocational preparation of clients—including on-the-job training)
4.8	3. Rehabilitation centers and sheltered workshops (include pre-vocational and work adjustment program)
10.4	4. Employment opportunities (lack of job openings)
9.8	5. General (when use two or more of above)
13.7	B. Relationship problems (cooperation, coordination, and integration)
8.3	1. Between agencies or professions
2.1	2. Between individual rehabilitation workers (inappropriate role behavior)
2.1	3. Lack of understanding ol DVR (agency) role by other agencies
2.7	4. Referral problem (inappropriate or ineffective referral by other agency)
15.8	C. Attitude toward handicapped and rehabilitation services
4.8	1. General community
8.3	2. Employer
5.1	3. Inadequate public education and public relations this area
1.8	D. Legislation barriers

confidence was accepted in rejecting the null hypothesis.

As TABLE 2 shows, the two major categories on which the Trained and Untrained rehabilitation counselors differ were Client and Supervisor. Trained counselors listed deficiencies of the client as barriers more often than Untrained. Further analysis showed that this was a function of the proportion of non-DVR counselor responses in this category. The differences between Trained and Untrained for this category were not significant within other subgroups, *i.e.*, DVR counselors and Experienced-Inexperienced. The percentage difference between Trained and Untrained with regard to the deficiencies of the supervisor was not large; however, it is noteworthy not only because it was statistically significant, but also because no Trained counselor cited barriers in this category. Although the Trained and Untrained did not differ on the major category Employing Agency, there was a significant difference between these groups on its sub-category, counselor assignment and work expectancies, and the sub-division, caseload too large.

When Experienced counselors were compared with Inexperienced on the 24 classifications which include the five major categories (See TABLE 3), the highest level sub-

categories, and those subdivisions which accounted for large numbers of counselor responses, there were no significant differences. This lack of difference between counselors classified as Experienced and Inexperienced remained when training was controlled; that is, when the Trained, Somewhat Trained, and Untrained counselor groups were divided into Experienced and Inexperienced groups, the analysis showed no differences.

TABLE 2

The Percentage of Trained, Somewhat Trained, and Untrained Counselors Citing Ideas Within the Five Major Categories Used to Classify Opinions Regarding Barriers to Effective Rehabilitation

	All Counselors Studied		
	Trained (N = 83)	*Somewhat Trained (N = 70)*	*Untrained (N = 183)*
Self (Counselor)	34.9	25.7	35.0
Client*	33.7	8.6	11.5
Supervisor*	0.0	12.9	13.7
Employing Agency	80.7	84.3	80.3
Community Resources	47.0	50.0	44.8
	State DVR Counselors		
	Trained (N = 53)	*Somewhat Trained (N = 57)*	*Untrained (N = 172)*
Self (Counselor)	32.0	28.1	34.9
Client	9.5	7.0	11.6
Supervisor†	0.0	12.3	14.0
Employing Agency	90.6	87.7	80.2
Community Resources	37.8	45.6	44.2
	Other Counselors		
	Trained (N = 30)	*Somewhat Trained (N = 13)*	*Untrained (N = 11)*
Self (Counselor)	40.0	15.4	36.4
Client*	76.7	15.4	9.1
Supervisor	0.0	15.4	9.1
Employing Agency	63.3	39.2	81.8
Community Resources	63.3	69.2	54.5

* Difference significant at the 0.01 level of confidence.
† Difference significant at the 0.05 level of confidence.

Comparisons of DVR counselors with other counselors showed a significantly larger portion of the DVR counselors mentioning the employing agency as a barrier than counselors from other rehabilitation agencies. As can be seen from TABLE 3, five out of six DVR counselors see some aspect of their agencies' practices and procedures as being barriers to effective rehabilitation while the same ratio is about two out of three for other counselors. The Other Counselor group, more often than the DVR Counselor, regards the lack of community resources as a serious barrier to effective rehabilitation. Both of these differences are statistically significant. The two groups do not differ in the proportion of counselors which attribute deficiencies or lacks to self, client, and supervisor categories.

TABLE 3

The Percentage of Counselors Citing Ideas Within the Five Major Categories Used to Classify Opinions Regarding Barriers to Effective Rehabilitation

	By Counselor Type†		
	State DVR Counselors (N = 282)	*Other Counselors (N = 54)*	*All Counselors (N = 336)*
Self (Counselor)	33.0	33.3	33.0
Client	10.3	11.1	10.4
Supervisor	11.0	5.6	10.1
Employing Agency*	83.7	68.5	81.2
Community Resources*	43.3	63.0	46.4
	By Amount of Experience		
	Experienced (N = 149)	*Inexperienced (N = 187)*	
Self (Counselor)	28.9	38.3	
Client	8.6	12.8	
Supervisor	12.3	7.4	
Employing Agency	81.3	81.2	
Community Resources	49.7	42.3	

* Difference significant at the 0.01 level of confidence.
† The Chi-Square statistic was used to compare DVR and other counselors and did not include the total group.

Further examination of the sub-categories under the employing agency showed that significantly more DVR counselors than other counselors were concerned with the following areas: lack of funds and facilities; emphasis on reports and records; counselor assignments and work expectancies; too large case loads; and the emphasis on numbers of rehabilitations. Analysis of the sub-categories under community resources showed only one in which the proportion of counselors responding was significantly different. Some 26 per cent of the Other Counselors reported items classified under the relationship problem heading while only 11.3 per cent of the DVR group mentioned such items. This may be a function of the more intimate working relationship involved in hospital and rehabilitation center work; that is, working together in one facility may intensify any possible differences arising from roles ascribed and assumed by particular disciplines and workers.

To better understand the above results, it seems desirable to complement the statistical findings with some impressions based on observations made during the data collection process. The participants seemed to have a great need to talk about the question posed by this study. Once rapport was established, it was frequently difficult to terminate discussion. They expressed a sense of frustration in not being able to do more for their clients. The perceived barrier was the impersonal demands and limits of their agency and the interpretations given procedures and policies by supervisors and administrators. They seemed to feel "squeezed between the needs of their clients and the demands of their agency," as one respondent put it. The counselors expressed, with marked feeling, the belief that they should be consulted by their agencies on questions concerned with improving services and ameliorating the frustrations associated with rehabilitation counseling. Associated with this was a lack of feeling of reward for effort; they expressed the belief that the agency heads had little interest in "how well" the counselor was doing his job, but were much interested in "how many" he processed.

Discussion

The analysis of counselors' statements describing barriers to effective rehabilitation shows that counselors report a wide range of lacks in their work setting. The deficiencies listed within the five major categories all suggest possible areas needing further study and amelioration. The barriers associated with the Employing Agency represent a problem area which merits much more consideration and thought. Both administrative action and training programs may be needed to avert the deficiencies subsumed under Self and Community Resources categories. The fairly low frequency for Supervisor as a barrier suggests that the need may not be to enhance their supervision skill, but rather to increase their effectiveness in the training function and as liaison between (1) counselors and administrative heads and (2) counselors and other professions and agencies.

The substantial counselor opinion which links barriers to effective rehabilitation to the activities of the employing agency suggests a need for a careful reappraisal of agency policies, procedures, and practices. There seem to be two principal ways to interpret this information. Counselors may project the blame for their frustrations upon higher administrative levels or lack sufficient understanding of the pressures with which the administrator must cope. We might ask, if projection was the mechanism, why counselors mentioned ideas associated with the agency rather than Self, Client, Supervisor, or Community Resources. If lack of counselor understanding of the realities of agency pressures is the problem, it would still seem that the initiative for creating greater understanding must repose upon the professional leaders in rehabilitation: administrators, supervisors, and teachers. Another reasonable interpretation might be that agency policies, regulations, and practices do, in fact, work as barriers to the counselor's rehabilitation efforts. The data of this study do not permit a resolution of the causal factors. We might well assume that both major inter-

pretations are in part true and are inextricably bound together. Whether the origins of these dissatisfactions were primarily in the distorted perceptions of the counselor or a function of administrative inadequacies they should be of concern to the profession of rehabilitation counseling and especially to administrators and teachers.

Our data and observations suggest that some of the reasons for the counselor opinion may include: (1) He perceives the agencies professed goals and philosophy as being in conflict with its practices; *e.g.*, he is continually reminded of the need for professional quality services but even more frequently admonished to meet his quota. (2) He perceives his work as guided not by his professional judgments but by forms and regulations. (3) He sees himself as a part of a de-personalized bureaucratic machine which imposes regulations and procedures with little regard for his views or the needs of his clients. Considered in the light of industrial studies such as Roethlisberger and Dickson [*5*], Coch and French [*1*], and Fleishman [*2*], the above interpretations seem reasonable.

The substantial proportion of counselors who think that the lack of community resources is a barrier suggests two main interpretations. One of these may be that counselors are not well informed about the community resources while the other may arise from the absence of such resources. There seems to be some justification for the first view for at least part of the counselor group. If we keep in mind that the Other Counselors of this study are located in urban centers and that such centers are the established loci of rehabilitation services and facilities, it is difficult to understand the greater concern of Other Counselors than DVR Counselors for this lack. It would appear that some Other Counselors either do not know about these services or have not established a relationship with the other community resources, especially training facilities and employment opportunities. Probably a larger portion of all counselors with items in this category have had problems arising from the absence of suitable training and employment facilities.

Summary

A study of rehabilitation counselor responses to the question, "What in your opinion are some of the factors that stand in the way of doing the best kind of rehabilitation job with clients?" was made. The opinions of the 336 counselors from both State-Federal and other agencies were classified in a system which included five major categories and a total of 72 headings. The reliability of this procedure was found adequate and pooled ratings were used to resolve any differences in classification. The results were reported for the entire set of categories and analyzed by counselor type, level of experience, and training for the five major categories.

The findings show that rehabilitation counselors think that their agencies' policies, procedures, and practices stand in the way of their doing the best kind of job with clients. The results suggest that improved communications between counselor and agency leadership and an increased opportunity for the counselor to see himself as a professional person whose opinions and judgments are wanted and considered may be needed in rehabilitation work. There also may be a need to re-examine the work of rehabilitation agencies with these stated concerns in mind. The data also suggest some concern about community resources and the counselor's own competencies. The supervisor's competencies and client deficiences were seldom reported as barriers to effective rehabilitation.

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EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES, ACADEMIC INTERESTS, AND CURRICULUM CHOICES

ROSS W. MATTESON

Interest patterns—their development, their analysis, and the assessment of their significance—are properly the object of serious contemplation, discussion, theorizing, and research. In tracing the development of some of the determining factors in the growth of the concept of vocational interest, Gaddes [*1*] has presented an interesting historical survey. He goes as far back as William James and concludes with the present-day need for the researcher to "draw on all (his) sources—psychometric, clinical, and sociological."

Certain aspects of students' experiences and related academic interests were considered in a series of studies at the Michigan State University Counseling Center a few years ago [*2, 3*]. Experience-interest relationships and experience-interest changes were analyzed. Results were interesting and suggestive, but not sensational.

The persistently recurring suggestion that some sort of near replication of the earlier work might be desirable has led to the present effort. The earlier studies were confined pretty much to intra-student relationships between experience and interest, using one or more applications of the Activity Check List as the measuring device. The current studies, on the other hand, attempt to relate these same measures of experience and interest to such factors as choice of college major and to concomitant attributes and self-descriptions of students.

By way of necessary delimitation, the discussion presented here is confined to that phase of the over-all problem suggested in the above title—the relation of academic interests to educational experiences and curriculum choices.

Although presently not based on any too clearly formulated framework of theoretical constructs, the study is aimed at more than mere fact-finding "correlation of observables with observables." One hypothesis (or question) might be considered as involving the probability of the changing world picture being reflected in changed patterns of academic experiences and related interests of students coming to college in these post-Sputnik times. Concurrently, a relationship is hypothesized to exist between the academic interests of these college freshmen and the opportunities available to them for sampling certain kinds of experiences.

A further supposition to be investigated is that the Activity Check List (ACL) will differentiate with respect to academic interest among curriculum groups, *i.e.*, strong interests in certain areas will be characteristic of certain curricula.

In addition to cross-validating the 1951 study and bringing into the picture curriculum choice data, the research design offered an opportunity to add to the existing norm data for the ACL.

Method

Indications of students' academic interests and experiences were obtained from the ACL, administered during orientation week to a group of 300 entering freshmen (185 men and 115 women) at Michigan State University. The development, nature, and use of the instrument have been described previously [2]. Scores for both experience and interest in each of 10 areas were obtained from the ACL, and the data trans-

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ferred to IBM cards for analysis. Distributions of scores for each of the categories were run, for comparison with similar distributions obtained in the earlier study and for use in building new tables of percentile ranks.

In each of the 10 test areas the experience-interest correlation was obtained and compared with the corresponding coefficient from the earlier study. A further step involved calculating the percentages of students in each of the broad curriculum groups having high or high-average interest scores in each of the 10 ACL areas.

Findings

In comparing indications of students' differential experiences and interests obtained in this study with analogous data from the 1951 study, the immediate impression (TABLE 1) is one of quite substantially shifting patterns. This is particularly apparent in the *experience* portion of TABLE 1, where significant differences in means for the two groups of freshmen occur in eight of the ten areas. Highly significant experience increases are shown for the mechanical, computational, scientific, communicative, and clerical categories. Most significant of the decreases in experience scores is found in the aesthetic area.

Comparative mean scores in academic *interests* show fewer significant differences for the two years. But again—as with experience means—we find increased interest indicated in the areas related to mathematics and engineering, with correspondingly less interest now recorded in the aesthetic, recreational, and personal relationships areas.

As to normative data, we now are able to present tables of ACL percentile ranks for each of the various sub-tests, based on a total of 2,029 cases. Separate norm tables have also been worked out, based on 926 freshman men and on 410 freshman women.

Experience-interest correlation coefficients for the 10 test areas ranged from 0.62 to 0.14, with this latter coefficient the only one less than 0.42. The one low coefficient was for the recreational (RE) area. It will be noted from TABLE 2 that most of these newly determined experience-interest relationships are quite close to those obtained in the same manner with the 1951 data. In only one area—clerical (CL)—was the difference in coefficients large enough to be significant, as tested utilizing the r to z transformation [4].

With respect to sex differences in experience-interest relationships, the correlation coefficients for the women students were found to exceed those for men in seven of the ten experience-interest areas as well as for the totals or "levels" of experience and interest. Differences were again checked

TABLE 1

Comparison of 1958 with 1951 Experience and Interest Data

Area	Experience				Interest			
	M(58)	*M(51)*	*Dm*	*D/σD*	*M(58)*	*M(51)*	*Dm*	*D/σD*
Mechanical	8.23	7.18	1.05	4.37*	7.58	6.68	0.90	3.00†
Computational	10.33	8.64	1.69	5.83*	8.63	6.89	1.74	4.14*
Scientific	15.25	13.60	1.67	4.07*	13.28	12.89	0.39	0.74
Communicative	13.46	12.25	1.21	4.17*	10.73	10.39	0.34	0.88
Aesthetic	9.50	11.73	2.23	5.72*	9.15	12.13	2.90	5.47*
Recreational	10.57	11.05	0.48	2.67†	10.96	11.66	0.70	3.18†
Societal	17.83	17.61	0.22	0.71	13.86	14.50	0.64	1.36
Political	11.76	11.78	0.02	0.10	10.45	10.75	0.30	1.00
Clerical	15.76	14.50	1.26	4.34*	11.62	11.04	0.58	1.41
Personal relationships	13.50	14.31	0.81	3.12†	14.09	15.94	1.85	4.87*

* Significant at 0.001 level.
† Significant at 0.01 level.

TABLE 2

Correlation Coefficients Between Experience and Interest

Area of Experience-Interest	*Present Study*	*Earlier Study*
Mechanical	0.62	0.62
Computational	0.60	0.59
Scientific	0.60	0.55
Communicative	0.42	0.50
Aesthetic	0.62	0.64
Recreational	0.14	0.24
Societal	0.44	0.41
Political	0.44	0.53
Clerical	0.42	0.07
Personal relationships	0.52	0.48

for significance, with only the societal (SO) area showing M-F differences approaching significance. Here the correlation for females was 0.59, compared to only 0.34 for males. In the three areas where the relationship was stronger for the men students than for the women, the differences all were small and non-significant.

In connection with these differences in experience-interest relationships, quite sizable sex differences were observed also in the mean scores of men and women in several of the test categories. Males, for example, indicated generally more experience and more interest than females in the mechanical, computational, and scientific areas; females, on the other hand, indicated generally more experience and more interest than males in the communicative, aesthetic, and personal relationships areas.

A further test of experience-interest relatedness will of course come in two years. The students by then will presumably have had greatly increased opportunities for experiencing the kinds of activities sampled in the ACL.

In looking at the interests characteristic of different curriculum groups, several patterns were seen to emerge. To avoid very small N's, only the broader curricular groupings were employed, *i.e.*, all College of Agriculture students were grouped together, all Engineering College students, all College of Education students, etc.

Interest areas in which more than half of a major curriculum group had high or high-average level scores are shown below, following the names of the various curricular groups of college preferences (the asterisks indicate areas in which 75 per cent or more of the group had high or high-average scores):

Agriculture
- mechanical (ME)*
- scientific (SC)*
- computational (CO)
- societal (SO)
- clerical (CL)
- political (PO)

Business and Public Service
- clerical (CL)
- computational (CO)

Engineering
- mechanical (ME)*
- computational (CO)*
- scientific (SC)

Home Economics
- communicative (CA)
- personal relationships (PR)
- aesthetic (AE)
- societal (SO)
- political (PO)

Science and Arts
- aesthetic (AE)
- societal (SO)
- mechanical (ME)

Veterinary Medicine
- scientific (SC)*
- societal (SO)
- mechanical (ME)

Education
- clerical (CL)
- personal relationships (PR)
- communicative (CA)
- societal (SO)
- aesthetic (AE)

Communication Arts
- political (PO)*
- communicative (CA)*
- aesthetic (AE)
- societal (SO)
- personal relationships (PR)

These differential interest patterns for the most part include just about those kinds of academic interests customarily seen as characteristic of such curricular groups. At least two observations are probably in order, however. It seems noteworthy that students with preferences in agriculture and

in communication arts show strong and rather diversified patterns of interest; engineering students show strong (but not diversified) patterns, while home economics and education majors have diversified (but not so strong) patterns of interests. Also it may be significant that strong recreational interests do not appear to characterize *any* of the curricular groups.

For the 38 freshmen in this group who had not yet selected a major, the "No Preference" students, it may be noteworthy that no really strong interest patterns were to be found. In only one area, the mechanical, were as many as half of this group (53 per cent) in the high or high-average interest bracket.

Summary and Conclusions

A modified repetition of an earlier study of experience-interest relationships was conducted in order (1) to compare academic experiences and interests of two groups of entering freshmen, seven years apart; (2) to cross-validate results of the earlier study; (3) to contribute additional norm data for the Activity Check List; and (4) to provide some evidence relating academic interests as measured by the ACL to curricular groupings at Michigan State University.

Some significant shifts in experience and interest patterns were disclosed. A moderate degree of relationship was found to exist between academic interests and experiences—pre-college experiences in this case. It was found, also, that the ACL differentiated among the different curricular groups with somewhat characteristic patterns of interest appearing. Follow-up studies in this and related areas are under way, designed to incorporate such variables as individual background factors, self-descriptions, and patterns of changes.

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The Differential Validity of THE COLLEGE QUALIFICATION TESTS *for Diverse Curricular Groups*

ARVO E. JUOLA

ALTHOUGH STUDIES have reported the predictive validity of the College Qualification Tests (CQT) to compare favorably with other recently developed instruments [*1*, *3*], little is known about the diagnostic potential of the subscales. Data of this kind is vital to counselors who use subscale scores in differential academic counseling and also to the growing number of investigators who are seeking to develop test batteries which maximize the precision with which success in different curricula can be predicted. Inquiry of this kind is particularly necessary for the recently developed CQT because the subscales differ considerably from either the intensively studied ACE Psychological Examination or other widely used tests of academic aptitude. While the Verbal Test (Vocabulary) is similar to verbal sections of other tests of academic aptitude, the Numerical Test contains problems which require knowledge of content considered in more specialized high school mathematics courses. The Information Test, which assesses relatively isolated general information from the natural and social sciences, has no precedent among college-level tests of academic ability. This paper presents data which have been designed to test the validity of the subscores for purposes of differential prediction.

The Data and Design

Six different groups of first term freshmen at Michigan State University were selected for study. These were: (1) a random sample of 498 males; (2) a random sample of 434 females; (3) a group of 210 students who were majoring in Engineering or one of the physical sciences and were therefore enrolled in both chemistry and algebra;[1] (4) a group of 178 students enrolled in a "general" college algebra course (for nonphysical science majors); (5) a group of 302 students enrolled in a "general" college chemistry course; and (6) a "nontechnical" group of 556 students who were enrolled the first quarter in Basic Social Science. Each student in these six groups was also enrolled in Basic Communication Skills (a three credit course required of all freshmen) and Basic Natural Science (a four credit course which is devoted to the biological sciences the first quarter).

TABLE 1 presents CQT score means and standard deviations for each of the six groups of subjects. Here it is clear that the ability patterns of the six groups are quite different. The random sample of male students seems somewhat inferior to the female group on the CQT-V but superior to the females on the N and I subtests and likewise the total score. The highly technical group appears to be the most superior of the six groups but this superiority appears attributable to higher than average scores on the N and I tests of the CQT. The CQT scores for Groups V and VI seem to be more similar to the mean scores of the two random male and female samples while

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[1] This group is labeled as the "highly technical group" because students were enrolled in two technical subjects and also because these chemistry and algebra courses demanded more mathematical and science competence than the courses specified for groups 4 and 5.

TABLE 1

CQT Means and Standard Deviations for the Six Freshman Groups

			CQT Verbal		CQT Information		CQT Numerical		CQT Total Score	
		N	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
I	All males (sample)*	498	44.73	12.83	50.83	9.53	32.55	9.97	128.11	26.22
II	All females (sample)*	434	47.27	12.18	44.29	9.11	25.04	9.34	116.60	24.55
III	Highly technical	210	46.96	12.31	55.58	8.27	41.18	6.08	143.71	20.78
IV	General college algebra	178	46.75	13.03	51.23	8.91	35.27	6.87	133.24	23.24
V	General college chemistry	302	45.16	12.73	49.92	8.53	30.63	8.81	125.71	23.87
VI	Nontechnical	556	46.38	12.29	47.25	9.03	27.63	9.37	121.26	23.59

* The data for the "all male" and "all female" groups are based on a random sample selected from 1,239 males and 1,126 females.

group V (the college algebra group) seems to show a slight degree of superiority in the quantitative area but not of the degree noted for Group III. It is also of interest to note that whenever the mean score on the CQT-N test is high for a group of subjects, the mean I score for that group also is higher than average but to a lesser degree. It would appear that the I score is biased in the direction of favoring students with superior N scores.

TABLE 2 presents zero-order and multiple correlation coefficients between CQT scores and selected measures of academic attainment for each of the six groups. Criteria to be predicted for the random male and female groups are the first quarter GPA and the grade received in Basic Communication Skills (CS) and Natural Science (NS), while grade criteria reported for the other groups included only grades that are unique to a given group.

TABLE 2

Zero-Order Product Moment Correlation Coefficients and Two-Variable and Three-Variable Multiple Correlation Coefficients Between CQT Scores and First Quarter Grades of Six Freshman Groups

		Zero-Order Correlations				Multiple R's			
	Criteria	Total CQT	CQT V	CQT I	CQT N	V & I	V & N	I & N	V & I & N
I	Random all male group								
	Total GPA	0.61	0.44	0.51	0.53	0.54	0.60	0.59	0.61
	CS grade	0.64	0.61	0.52	0.39	0.65	0.54	0.54	0.65
	NS grade	0.60	0.42	0.51	0.55	0.53	0.60	0.61	0.62
II	Random all female group								
	Total GPA	0.64	0.52	0.56	0.47	0.62	0.61	0.60	0.65
	CS grade	0.64	0.59	0.53	0.39	0.64	0.62	0.55	0.65
	NS grade	0.69	0.50	0.60	0.57	0.64	0.66	0.67	0.70
III	Highly technical group								
	Total GPA	0.52	0.29	0.44	0.60	0.45	0.61	0.64	0.64
	Chem.—math. GPA	0.41	0.16	0.35	0.60	0.35	0.60	0.61	0.62
	Chem. 111 grade	0.44	0.22	0.42	0.48	0.42	0.49	0.54	0.55
	Math. 111 grade	0.32	0.09	0.24	0.59	0.24	0.59	0.59	0.60
IV	General algebra group								
	Math. 101 grade	0.42	0.28	0.23	0.59	0.29	0.59	0.59	0.59
V	General chemistry group								
	Chem. 101 grade	0.53	0.33	0.45	0.53	0.46	0.55	0.60	0.60
VI	Nontechnical group								
	CS-NS-SS GPA	0.65	0.58	0.56	0.33	0.65	0.63	0.57	0.66
	SS grade	0.56	0.54	0.51	0.21	0.60	0.55	0.51	0.60

Considering first the correlations between test scores and grades for only the two random male and female groups, it appears that all three CQT subscores seem to contribute to prediction. In predicting the GPA of both sexes, for example, there appears to be little difference in the predictive validities of the three subscores. The predictive validities of each subscale are so nearly equal, in fact, that optimal weighting of the three scales by multiple correlation results in a multiple R that is no larger for the prediction of total GPA than is the simple arithmetic sum of the subscales as reflected in the total score. The part-scores do, however, seem to show a degree of differentiation in the prediction of success for the two common general education courses. The V section appears to be superior to the N section in predicting CS grades, while the N section appears superior to the V in the prediction of NS grades. The relationship of the I-score to these grades, however, seems to be but little affected by the nature of the course for which predictions were made. The magnitude of relationship between the I-score and both CS and NS grades is quite similar to that noted for the total GPA. When weighted optimally by multiple regression, the magnitude of the resulting multiple R employing the three subtests in the prediction of CS and NS grades is very little better, however, than the correlation between the CQT-total score and corresponding grades. Again, it appears that differentiation among the subscales is not sufficiently large to warrant deviating from the unit weighting procedure which results when subscores are added to secure a total score.[2]

In contrast to the relatively uniform pattern of relationship between each of the part scores and grades reported for the random groups, the predictive validities of the three CQT subscores show a marked degree of variation in prediction of grades for groups III, IV, and V (the technically oriented groups). Not only is the CQT-N test markedly superior to the other subtests for predicting grades in these technical courses, but the predictive validity of the CQT-N for technical courses appears to be substantially higher than that of the CQT score. This pattern appears to apply to the prediction of grades in both of the college algebra courses studied, in both of the chemistry courses, in the composite average of the chemistry and mathematics courses for group III, and in the total first quarter GPA of group III. It is of interest to note that only the N-test seems to contribute to the prediction of grades in the two algebra courses since the multiple R employing all three subscales did not materially increase the zero-order CQT-N with grade correlation. The V and I (particularly the I score) subsections do appear to contribute to the prediction of grades in chemistry and to the prediction of the two composite grade averages for group III.

Relationships between CQT subscores and grades of group VI (the nontechnical group) seem to parallel those noted for CS group) in the random student groups. The CS-NS-SS (Social Science) GPA seems most closely related to the V and I subtests, but the multiple R employing the three subtests is little higher than the correlation between this GPA and the CQT-total score. The SS grade alone, however, seems to be but little related to the CQT-N score and optimal weighting of subscores by multiple regression results in a multiple R which is higher than the zero-order correlation between the CQT-total score and SS grades.

Discussion and Summary

That the total score on the CQT predicts the over-all freshman GPA as well as multiple correlation which applies an optimal weighting to each subscore is consistent with findings from an earlier study [4]. Each of the three subscores seems to contribute sufficiently to prediction of this composite measure of academic attainment that a unit weight assigned to each score appears as appropriate as differentially weighted

[2] Multiple R's which exceed a zero-order correlation by only 0.01 or 0.02 correlation points are here regarded as showing a negligible improvement because it is expected that multiple R's would exhibit some shrinkage in cross-validation.

scores. In the prediction of the grades in CS or NS, however, the relationship of the N and V scores to grades did vary systematically. Here, the relatively high degree of relationship between the I score and grades in both courses seemed to be the major factor resulting in the total CQT score being almost as effective as optimally weighted subscores as reflected in the multiple R. The data reported for the two random groups and the nontechnical groups do tend to support the view that multiple regression analysis using subscores of the CQT contributes little to precision in prediction of grade-point-average of students in nontechnical curricula or to prediction of specific nontechnical course grades.

In technical courses, however, differential weighting of subscores results in predictions which are markedly superior to those made on the basis of the total score of the CQT alone. The basis for this pattern is obviously attributable to the high degree of relationship between the N-score and grades in the technical courses. The "relatively technical" nature of the CQT N-score items seems to enhance the predictive validity of the scale for technical academic areas. Not only is this quantitative subscore superior to the other subscores but it is also superior to the total score on the CQT in prediction of several of the technical grade criteria considered here. This observation has considerable practical significance for purposes of guidance and differential prediction, because the relationship of the Q-score of the widely used ACE to grades in technical courses has never proved to be satisfactory [2]. It is also of interest to note that while multiple correlation using all subscores does not seem to increase CQT-N with mathematics grade correlation, the multiple R for the chemistry grades and the composite grade averages of the technical group is higher than the zero-order relationships observed for the N-score. Also of interest is that where the multiple R is superior to that observed for the N-score alone, the increase appears attributable largely to the I-section of the CQT. The CQT subtests do, therefore, seem to show potential for purposes of differential prediction, and this potential appears to be largely a function of the somewhat unique N and I scores.

Relationships between CQT scores and grades for six different freshman groups at Michigan State University were reported as part of a study which attempted to test the validity of CQT subscores for purposes of differential prediction. These groups were selected on the basis of students being enrolled in diverse courses which should reflect varying demands upon different types of abilities. On the basis of zero-order and multiple correlation coefficients between CQT scores and different grade criteria the following conclusions were proposed:

1. The arithmetic sum of subscores, as reflected in the total score of the CQT, seems to be as efficient in the prediction of the over-all grade point average of students largely in nontechnical curricula as optimal weighting of subscores as in multiple regression analysis.

2. The total score seems also to provide almost as effective a basis for prediction of success in specific nonquantitative courses as multiple regression analysis.

3. Multiple regression analysis using CQT subscores appears to provide a much better basis for prediction of grades and grade point averages in the technical curricula than the total score on the CQT.

4. The two somewhat unique scores provided in the CQT, namely, the somewhat technical N-score and the general information I-score, appear to evidence considerable promise for purposes of differential prediction or differential guidance.

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A Discrepancy Score Method in Predicting Scholastic Achievement of College Freshmen Counseled During Probation

ELEANORE S. ISARD and DAVID I. LASKY

All of us in educational institutions are confronted at one time or another with the problem of the student whose scholastic record does not begin to approach his measured potential. We label him an "underachiever" and then devise various and sundry methods to help increase his productivity.

For the past several years, one of the methods that have been employed with the underachieving student in Temple University's School of Business and Public Administration is voluntary group counseling in conjunction with instruction in reading-study techniques, planning and use of time, career exploration, etc. The students who are "eligible" for admission to this program are those who failed to achieve a first semester grade-point average of 2.00 ("C") or better, despite the fact that their performance in high school and/or their college aptitude tests indicated they had the potential. Failure to achieve a "C" average for the first semester results in scholastic probation and the opportunity to enroll in a multiple counseling program entitled Diagnostic-Developmental Study.[1] Outcome studies which have been made since the inception of this program show that the counseled probation students, on the whole, tend to achieve better grades in their courses than do those who are not counseled.

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[1] The authors wish to express their appreciation for help in data collection to Elaine B. Chapline and Ruth Alexander Sugerman, both of whom are graduate students in psychology and part-time staff members at Temple University.

The purpose of this study, however, was neither to validate the procedures employed in the multiple counseling program nor to determine the predictive value of a particular test. It was, rather, to explore the use of a discrepancy score for predictive purposes.

The Sample: Subjects and Tests

Data from the Ohio State Psychological Examination (OSPE) and the Draw-A-Man Test (DAM), which were available from the previous semester on the members of three groups of probationed students who were in the program during the spring semester, 1958–1959, were utilized ($N = 38$ males).

The OSPE is a test designed to appraise the verbal abilities of individuals, with special reference to the intellectual demands of a college curriculum. It is reported to be especially useful in identifying individuals at the extremes, that is, those most likely to achieve and those least likely.

The DAM is presumed to be a measure of children's intelligence. As opposed to the OSPE, the DAM is a form of perceptual-motor expression. In this study it was not used for the purpose of estimating intelligence, but rather as an empirical device for measuring amount of perceptual-motor differentiation, that is, amount of detail present in the figure. The test was scored by Goodenough's 51-item check list.

Formulation of the Model

Basic to the development of the discrepancy score method presented in this paper is a concept of self-consistency. It is hypothesized that individuals possessing this

trait—as defined in the present context—will more readily be able to utilize their intellectual potential. Self-consistency, as used here, is reflected in a discrepancy score derived from the verbal aptitude test and the perceptual-motor task (scored in terms of amount of differentiation). Implicit in this formulation is the belief that the greater the magnitude of the difference between scores, the greater the likelihood that the individual will have difficulty integrating his potential or putting it to use constructively.

The specific hypothesis tested was that students who show a marked discrepancy between their standard scores on the OSPE and the DAM would, despite the counseling program, fail to bring their grades up to a 2.00 average. Conversely, those who show greater consistency (less discrepancy) on the two measures will obtain a grade-point average of at least 2.00.

Treatment of Data

Using the data from the three counseling groups (38 subjects), means and standard deviations were computed for both tests. The obtained raw scores on the OSPE

TABLE 1

OSPE Scores, DAM Scores, and Second Semester Grade-Point Averages for 32 Counseled Probation Students

Student	1 *Post GPA*	2 *Raw DAM*	3 *Raw OSPE*	4 *DAM z Score*	5 *OSPE z Score*	6 *z Score Difference*
1	2.88	40	54	+0.20	−0.70	0.90
2	2.80	29	58	−1.07	−0.47	0.60
3	2.60	30	62	−0.95	−0.25	0.75
4	2.43	33	43	−0.61	−1.32	0.71
5	2.40	42	55	+0.43	−0.64	1.17
6	2.38	41	97	+0.31	+1.72	1.41
7	2.38	34	79	−0.49	+0.71	1.20
8	2.33	36	93	−0.26	+1.50	1.74
9	2.29	48	55	+1.11	−0.64	1.75
10	2.28	35	77	−0.38	+0.60	0.98
11	2.20	42	111	+0.43	+2.51	2.08
12	2.20	42	83	+0.43	+0.94	0.51
13	2.20	40	82	+0.20	+0.88	0.68
14	2.17	40	56	+0.20	−0.59	0.79
15	2.00	45	83	+0.77	+0.94	0.17
16	2.00	29	63	−1.07	−0.19	0.88
17	2.00	38	49	−0.03	−0.98	0.95
18	2.00	43	56	+0.54	−0.59	1.13
19	1.83	47	83	+1.00	+0.94	0.06
20	1.81	37	53	−0.15	−0.75	0.60
21	1.80	17	89	−2.45	+1.27	3.72
22	1.80	43	47	+0.54	−1.09	1.63
23	1.80	47	52	+1.00	−0.81	1.81
24	1.68	47	56	+1.00	−0.59	1.59
25	1.67	34	55	−0.49	−0.64	0.15
26	1.50	48	59	+1.11	−0.42	1.53
27	1.50	36	88	−0.26	+1.22	1.48
28	1.47	09	63	−3.37	−0.19	3.18
29	1.40	44	52	+0.66	−0.81	1.47
30	1.20	41	74	+0.31	+0.43	0.12
31	0.75	41	37	+0.31	−1.66	1.97
32	0.75	48	60	+1.11	−0.36	1.47

were then converted to standard score units. (See TABLE 1, columns 3 and 5.) The raw scores obtained on the DAM with the 51-item Goodenough check list were also converted to standard scores (columns 2 and 4 in TABLE 1). A difference or discrepancy score was then obtained between the standard scores on the two tests (column 6 in TABLE 1). A "z" or standard score difference of 1.00 was established as an empirical cut-off point. For any subject who showed a discrepancy of this magnitude or greater, the prediction would be "non-achiever." Conversely, the prediction for those whose discrepancy was less than 1.00 would be that he would attain a "C" average. All predictions were made prior to the completion of the group counseling experience.

At the end of the semester, grade-point averages were obtained from the Dean's office for all members in the sample. Six of the original 38 members, who had all enrolled in one of the three counseling groups conducted by the same person, had either withdrawn from school during the semester or, because of incomplete work, had "withheld" grades on their transcripts. The working sample was thus reduced to 32 cases.

The obtained grade-point average was the single criterion of achievement that was used. A student was classified as an achiever if he attained a second-semester grade-point average (GPA) of 2.00 ("C") or higher; a non-achiever, if his grade-point average was less than 2.00. According to this criterion, 18 members had become achievers; 14 had not. (See column 1 in TABLE 1.)

Findings and Discussion

TABLE 1 shows the pertinent data for the 32 counseled-probation students. If TABLE 1 is broken down into achievers and non-achievers, it may be noted that for the 18 students who achieved grade-point averages of at least 2.00, standard score differences were below the empirical cutting point of 1.00 for 11 cases. When we look at the group who did not attain grade-point averages of at least 2.00, we find that, by using the discrepancy score method, erroneous predictions were made in four cases and accurate predictions in 10. Chi Square[2] was found to be 2.17 ($P>0.10$).[3]

A further examination of the data suggested that the empirical cutting point be increased from 1.00 to 1.30 for further

[2] Yates' Correction for Continuity was applied to all Chi Squares.

[3] P 0.10 = 2.706.

TABLE 2

OSPE Raw and Percentile Scores and First and Second Semester Grade-Point Averages for 32 Probationed Students

Student	1 OSPE Raw Score	2 OSPE* %ile	3 Pre GPA	4 Post GPA
1	54	32	1.82	2.88
2	58	37	1.69	2.80
3	62	42	1.50	2.60
4	43	19	1.56	2.43
5	55	34	1.01	2.40
6	97	76	1.88	2.38
7	79	59	1.69	2.38
8	93	73	1.75	2.33
9	55	34	1.00	2.29
10	77	57	1.77	2.28
11	111	87	1.25	2.20
12	83	64	1.19	2.20
13	82	63	1.62	2.20
14	56	35	1.25	2.17
15	83	64	1.56	2.00
16	63	43	1.25	2.00
17	49	26	1.94	2.00
18	56	35	1.31	2.00
19	83	64	1.62	1.83
20	53	31	1.60	1.81
21	89	69	1.12	1.80
22	47	24	1.19	1.80
23	52	30	1.25	1.80
24	56	35	1.65	1.68
25	55	34	1.00	1.67
26	59	38	1.00	1.50
27	88	68	0.88	1.50
28	63	43	1.41	1.47
29	52	30	1.56	1.40
30	74	54	1.00	1.20
31	37	11	1.00	0.75
32	60	39	1.62	0.75

* Norms used were for entering freshmen at Temple University.

analysis. Using this newly established discrepancy score of 1.30 as the cutting point, it was found that, of the 18 students who achieved a GPA of 2.00, accurate predictions could be made for fourteen. Of the 14 who had failed to achieve a GPA of 2.00, accurate predictions were made for ten. Chi Square was now found to be 5.88 ($P<0.02>0.01$).[4]

By reference to TABLE 2 and the attendant statistical analysis, the greater predictability of the discrepancy score method over the use of the OSPE alone can readily be seen.

If we compare OSPE percentile scores in TABLE 2 with end-of-second-semester grade-point averages of the 18 students who did achieve, and use 40th percentile (low end of the average range) as the arbitrary but practical cutting point, we find that prediction of "achiever" would have been correctly made for 10 cases and incorrectly for eight cases. For those 14 students who again in the second semester had not achieved, correct predictions would have been made for nine and incorrect predictions for five. Chi Square was found to be 0.58 ($P>0.30$).[5]

A comparison of columns 2 and 3 in TABLE 2 reveals that first-semester predictions of academic success from the OSPE alone (using 40th percentile as the cutting point) would have been correct in 17 cases and incorrect in 15.

It is apparent from the foregoing tables that the use of a discrepancy score significantly improved prediction of scholastic achievement for the counseled probation students over chance prediction as well as over predictions made on the basis of the OSPE alone.

[4] $P\ 0.01 = 6.635$. $P\ 0.02 = 5.412$.
[5] $P\ 0.30 = 1.074$.

Summary

Predictions of academic success are largely made on the basis of scores obtained on scholastic aptitude tests, despite the fact that it has long been recognized that achievement is dependent upon more than the mere possession of discrete intellectual attributes.

In this paper, a method is introduced which utilizes the *differences* between scores, rather than the scores themselves, for predictive purposes. The method reported here is based on a discrepancy score derived from a verbal measure of scholastic aptitude and a perceptual-motor task. The findings suggest that the utilization of the discrepancy score method is worthy of further investigation.

LEAFLET GIVES SUGGESTIONS ON JOB TRAINING FOR WOMEN

A new 12-page leaflet from the Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, is *Suggestions to Women and Girls on Training for Future Employment*. The booklet outlines why women should train for jobs, what the kinds of training are, and where training can be obtained. The leaflet is available at $.10 a copy from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

Factors Influencing Teacher Attitudes Toward and Participation in Guidance Services

JAMES A. STEWART

DURING the past decade, a number of prominent educators have assigned the teacher an important role in the success of guidance services. Reviewers have expressed concern regarding the scarcity of research in the area. This investigation attempted to evaluate specific factors influencing teacher attitudes toward and participation in guidance services in schools in the State of Washington [*6*].

Purposes

There were six specific purposes:

1. To devise a measuring instrument that would determine the degree of teacher *participation* in guidance services.
2. To devise a measuring instrument that would determine teacher *attitudes* toward guidance services.
3. To determine whether teacher attitudes and participation were significantly related.
4. To determine whether teacher training, experience, grades, and other correlates were significantly related to attitudes toward guidance services.
5. To determine whether teacher training, experience, grades, and other correlates were significantly related to participation in guidance services.
6. To determine whether teacher participation in guidance could be predicted from attitudes, training, experience, and other known variables.

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The article was prepared from the results of the research undertaken during the author's doctoral candidacy at the University of Washington.

Study Procedure

Preparation of a 95-item participation-in-guidance scale: Seventy-two experts[1] selected the items included in the scale. They checked each of the original items under one of three headings:

IN	Inappropriate for any guidance personnel
AO	Appropriate for personnel other than teachers
AT	Appropriate for teachers

Where an expert checked AT, he also checked one of four frequency categories:

Rarely:	Not more than once a year
Seldom:	Two to 10 times a year
Often:	Eleven to 20 times a year
Frequently:	More than 20 times a year

The appropriateness responses provided the data required to complete chi-square tests to determine the suitability of the items for inclusion in the final scale. No item was included unless its P value was 0.001 or greater. The frequency responses permitted the calculation of a mean frequency of performance for each item and the determination of weights assigned on the scoring key[2][7].

[1] An individual was classified as an expert in the field of guidance (1) if he were actively engaged by a government or a national society as a consultant, (2) if he were a director of guidance in a state, college, or large metropolitan area, (3) if he were a professor of guidance, or (4) if he were in private practice and had made frequently mentioned research contributions. Three out of four of the experts were working in the field with teachers. The remaining one fourth were instructing teachers in universities.

[2] The detailed statistical procedures are provided in the doctoral dissertation available from the University of Washington, Seattle, or on microfilm from the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Preparation of two 15-item teacher attitude-toward-guidance scales: The scales were standardized by the Edwards-Kilpatrick technique of scale discrimination [2]. One hundred and twelve Seattle teachers rated 141 statements on a nine-point scale from very favorable to very unfavorable. Seventy-two of the more ambiguous statements were eliminated and the remaining items were re-administered to a different group of 105 Seattle teachers. Phi coefficients were calculated to determine the items that were discriminating between the upper and the lower quartiles in the attitude-score distribution. Any item that failed to discriminate at the 0.05 level was discarded. The remaining 30 items were alternately assigned to two scales having a reliability coefficient of 0.58.

Selection of the sample: Teachers had to be employed in a school having a counselor who devoted one-third or more of his time to guidance. Furthermore, each teacher had (a) to possess a valid State of Washington certificate, (b) to have secured the majority of his professional training in the state, (c) to have taught for at least one year, and (d) to have been spending over two-thirds of his time in classroom instruction. Three teacher participants were selected at random from schools with fewer than 500 students and five from schools over 500. Four hundred and four usable returns were received from 102 secondary schools. Thirty-two usable returns were received from 9 elementary schools. The response was 71.1 per cent.

Completion of actual survey: The data were collected during the 1956–1957 school year. School counselors, following detailed instructions, distributed, collected, and returned the instruments.

Initial examination of returns: Data from the two scales and the accompanying identification sheet were key punched on IBM cards. The cards were coded according to a schema suggested for an IBM type 650 correlation program [*1*]. Whenever the data could be treated as a continuous variable (example: participation scores) and a dichotomous variable (example: male and female participation scores) point biserial coefficients of correlation were calculated. Tables 1 and 2 have been pre-

TABLE 1

Point Biserial Coefficients of Correlation for Classroom Teacher Participation-In-Guidance Scores by Sex, Marital Status, and Graduate Status

Participation Scores	r_{pb}	t	*Level of Significance* 0.05	0.01
Sex				
Male	...	...	..	..
Female	0.09	1.81	*	..
Marital status—male				
Married	...	...	..	..
Single	−0.11	1.74	*	..
Marital status—female				
Married	...	...	..	..
Single	−0.25	2.86	..	*
Graduate training				
Yes	...	...	..	..
No	−0.01	0.20	..	..
Graduate degree				
Yes	...	...	..	..
No	−0.16	2.97	..	*

TABLE 2

Point Biserial Coefficients of Correlation for Classroom Teacher Attitude-Toward-Guidance Scores by Sex, Marital Status, and Graduate Status

Attitude Scores	r_{pb}	t	*Level of Significance* 0.05	0.01
Sex				
Male	...	...	..	..
Female	0.09	1.81	*	..
Marital status—male				
Married	...	...	..	..
Single	−0.07	1.11	..	..
Marital status—female				
Married	...	...	..	..
Single	0.11	1.24	..	..
Graduate training				
Yes	...	...	..	..
No	0.05	1.03	..	..
Graduate degree				
Yes	...	...	..	..
No	−0.05	0.92	..	..

pared to summarize the significant relationships between participation scores and attitude scores respectively and sex, marital status, and graduate experience.

Whenever the data were dichotomized the difference between the means was calculated. The estimate of the standard error of the difference was calculated and a *t* test of significance made. The calculated statistics for participation and attitude scores respectively with respect to sex, marital status, experience, type of school, subjects taught, institutions conferring degrees, and certification have been summarized in TABLES 3 and 4.

Administration of Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventories [5]: The 50 teachers who had the most favorable attitude-toward-guidance scores and the 50 with the least favorable scores were requested to complete MTAI's. Thirty-nine of the "highs" and 45 of the "lows" responded.

Selection of optimal predictors of participation: Horst's [3, 4] iterative procedure for selecting a battery of optimal predictors of a single criterion was applied to the data. The resulting intercorrelation matrix is provided in TABLE 5. A multiple regression equation in score form was derived. It was: $X_1 = 1.936\ X_2 + 0.486\ X_3 + 117.73$ with X_1 the predicted participation score, X_2 the attitude score, and X_3 the experience in years. Predicted scores were calculated for a different sample of 131 teachers. The coefficient of correlation between the predicted and the achieved scores was 0.39.

Findings

The major findings of the study were:

1. Teachers in the State of Washington were participating very actively in guidance.

Thirty-eight activities were rated at the very satisfactory frequency of performance

TABLE 3

Significance of Difference of Means for Classroom Teacher Participation-In-Guidance Scores by Sex, Marital Status, Experience, Type of Secondary School, Subjects Taught, Institutions Conferring Degrees, and Graduate Status

	Mean	*D*	*σD*	*CR*	*df*	*0.05t*	*0.01t*
Sex					...	..	..
Female	238.79	...	...	...	402	*	..
Male	229.99	8.80	5.05	1.74			
Male					...	..	..
Married	232.24	...	...	...	249	*	..
Single	217.94	14.30	8.49	1.68			
Female					...	..	..
Married	248.91	...	...	...	127	..	*
Single	224.15	24.76	8.22	3.01			
Experience					...	..	..
Secondary	233.91	...	...	...	452	..	*
Elementary	224.57	9.34	3.66	2.55			
Experience					...	..	..
Supervisory	240.76	...	...	...	372	..	..
Secondary	233.91	6.85	8.88	0.77			
Type of Secondary School					...	..	..
Junior High	239.74	...	...	...	402	..	*
Senior High	225.37	14.37	4.92	2.92	...	*	*
Subjects taught	(a)	...	...	...	...	*	*
Institutions conferring degrees	(b)	...	...	...	...	..	..
Certification	(c)	...	...	...			

(a) Twenty-one of the 78 combinations of 13 subjects were significantly different; 11 at the 0.01t and 10 at the 0.05t level.
(b) Eight of the 27 combinations differed significantly; two at the 0.01t and six at the 0.05t level.
(c) There were no significant differences by certification.

TABLE 4

Significance of Difference of Means for Classroom Teacher Attitude-Toward-Guidance Scores by Sex, Marital Status, Experience, Type of Secondary School, Subjects Taught, Institutions Conferring Degrees, and Graduate Status

	Mean	*D*	*σD*	*CR*	*df*	*0.05t*	*0.01t*
Sex							
Female	57.89	...	...	...	...	..	..
Male	56.51	1.38	0.69	1.99	402	*	..
Male							
Married	56.74	...	...	...	...	..	..
Single	55.15	1.59	1.47	1.08	249	..	..
Female							
Married	58.20	...	...	...	...	..	..
Single	56.70	1.50	1.17	1.28	127	..	..
Experience							
Secondary	57.20	...	...	...	...	..	..
Elementary	56.49	0.71	0.76	0.93	542	..	..
Experience							
Supervisory	57.72	...	...	...	...	..	..
Non-supervisory	57.20	0.52	1.31	0.40	372	..	..
Type of secondary school							
Junior High	57.56	...	...	...	...	..	..
Senior High	56.50	1.06	0.70	1.52	402	..	..
Subjects taught	(a)	...	...	...	...	..	..
Institutions conferring degrees	(b)	...	...	...	...	..	..
Certification	(c)	...	...	...	...	..	..
Graduate training							
Yes	57.14	...	...	...	...	..	..
No	56.35	0.79	0.86	0.92	402	..	..
Graduate degree							
Yes	57.83	...	...	...	...	..	..
No	56.88	0.95	0.85	1.12	340	..	..

(a), (b), and (c): No significant differences.

TABLE 5

Matrix of Intercorrelations of Predictor Variables Used to Select a Battery of Optimal Predictors of a Single Criterion*

	Teacher's Attitude	*Principal's Attitude*	*Counselor's Attitude*	*Teacher's Experience*	*Principal's Experience*	*Counselor's Experience*	*Size of Faculty*	*Participation Score*
Predictor Number	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8**
1	1.000	0.090	−0.005	−0.014	0.036	0.009	0.041	0.258
2	...	1.000	0.016	−0.053	−0.173	0.003	−0.040	−0.036
3	...	...	1.000	0.068	−0.014	0.004	0.146	0.027
4	...	...	...	1.000	0.181	0.101	0.262	0.090
5	...	...	...	...	1.000	0.300	0.483	0.009
6	...	...	...	...	...	1.000	0.289	−0.037
7	...	...	...	...	...	...	1.000	0.088
8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1.000

level, 41 at the satisfactory, 10 at the unsatisfactory, and 6 at the very unsatisfactory.

2. There were significant differences in degree of individual teacher participation in guidance. The scores ranged from 80 to 378.

3. Scalable attitudes toward guidance were identified.

4. Teachers who had high and low attitudes toward guidance had significantly different mean scores on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory. The mean score of the "highs" were 34.22 greater than that of the "lows." The difference was significant at the 0.01 level.

5. Teacher attitude-toward-guidance scores and participation-in-guidance scores were significantly correlated at the 0.01 level.

6. Women had significantly higher mean participation scores than did men.

7. Married women had significantly higher mean participation scores than did single women.

8. Married men had significantly higher mean participation scores than did single men.

9. Possessors of graduate degrees had significantly higher mean participation scores than did non-possessors.

10. Secondary teachers had significantly higher mean participation scores than did elementary teachers.

11. Junior high teachers had significantly higher mean participation scores than did senior high teachers.

12. Teachers of certain combinations of subjects had significantly higher mean participation scores than did teachers of other subjects.

13. Teachers who were graduates of certain State of Washington institutions had significantly higher mean participation scores than did teachers who were graduates of other State of Washington institutions.

14. There was no significant difference in mean participation scores between those who had supervisory experience and those in secondary schools who had not had such experience.

15. There was no significant difference in mean participation score between those without and those with graduate training unless the latter had graduate degrees.

16. Women had significantly higher mean attitude-toward-guidance scores than did men.

17. No significant differences in mean attitude-toward-guidance scores were found by marital status, experience, type of secondary school, subjects taught, institutions conferring degrees, certification, or graduate experience.

18. The optimal predictors of participation scores were found to be the teachers' *attitudes* and *experience*. The correlation between predicted and achieved scores in participation was significant at the 0.01 level.

Summary

The study was of certain factors influencing teacher roles in guidance. Two scales, namely, a participation-in-guidance scale and an attitude-to-guidance scale were prepared and administered to randomly selected teachers in the State of Washington. The weighted judgments of experts were used in the item analyses of the participation scale. The Edwards and Kilpatrick scale-discrimination technique was followed in the preparation of the attitude scale.

When the data were analyzed by sex, marital status, experience, type of school, grades taught, institutions conferring degrees, and graduate experience, significant differences in mean participation scores were found. Attitude scores, however, were not found to differ significantly by marital status, experience, type of school, subjects taught, institutions conferring degrees, or graduate experience.

Scalable attitudes toward guidance were identified. Women were found to score significantly higher on the attitude-toward-guidance scale than did men. There was evidence that guidance attitudes were positively related to general attitudes to teaching.

The optimal predictors of participation-in-guidance scores were attitude scores and years of experience.

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RESEARCH SEMINAR ON MENTAL RETARDATION

The U. S. Office of Education, through its Cooperative Research Program, will conduct a research seminar on mental retardation during the last two weeks in August. The invitational seminar will bring together 12 leaders in the field of mental retardation to exchange ideas and to generate new ideas which can be used by investigators in conducting research in this field. During the seminar the participants will identify research problems in mental retardation based on their recent research studies and develop tentative designs for research on each of these problems. The results of the seminar will be reported in U. S. Office of Education publications and in appropriate professional journals.

The seminar is the first of a series being planned by the Cooperative Research Branch. The ultimate purpose of these seminars will be to increase the quantity of high quality research leading to practical solutions of major problems in the field of education. Inquiries concerning the seminars may be addressed to: Dr. Robert H. Beezer, U. S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D. C.

The Counselor's Role

in the Early Identification of Gifted Children

EDNA L. HARRISON

THE INITIATION of any program in the elementary school starts with the principal. "He is the key figure," says Barr [*1*]. "He is the person in the best position to view and interpret the over-all philosophy of the school, to see the guidance needs, and to instigate the machinery for getting guidance into operation." The first thing for the counselor to do, then, is to enlist the principal as a working member of the team.

Next to members of the family, the classroom teacher spends more time with the child than anyone else. Although he is limited by training, time, and experience in the types of problems he can handle, the biggest share of the guidance program in the school must of necessity be carried on by the teacher. So it is of the utmost importance that the teacher be in thorough accord with the identification program.

Parents, too, may figure in the matter of identification, although they are not necessarily the best judges as to whether their children have unusual ability or talents. Giftedness is not easy to recognize even by people best trained to do so.

Characteristics of the Gifted Child

What are we looking for when we go into the kindergarten in search of the gifted child?

In looking for an answer, we turn first to the kindergarten educationists to get a clearer picture of the *average* child and what might well be expected of him. Huey, in "Children from Two to Six," and Wills, "Readiness: Recognized or Developed," [*4*] raise standards he must meet. Beside those standards, Ruth Strang, in "The Nature of Giftedness" [7], aligns the characteristics of the gifted child. He is versatile, creative, original, curious, self-critical, and a logical thinker.

The counselor will enlist the help of the team to make up, as a beginning, a check list for the kindergarten such as the following:

1. The child has a great curiosity for everything in his way.
2. He is likely to be a non-conformist, an original thinker.
3. He is versatile, can do what other children do and more.
4. He is likely to use a more extensive vocabulary and express himself better.
5. He is capable of judging his own performance to a greater extent than most children.
6. He may be physically superior.
7. He is alert and eager, unless overly suppressed at home.
8. He is likely to show greater social sensitivity than average.

The list, when completed, will be used by either teacher or counselor, or both, as one of a series of helps in identification.

Testing for Giftedness

Too often, the Stanford-Binet is the sole instrument used for testing for giftedness. The counselor will need to reinforce his

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findings on the Binet, however, with observations, with mental ability tests such as the California Mental Maturity Test, with performance tests such as the Arthur Point Scale, and perhaps the Columbia Performance Scale. Super rules out the Science Research Associates' PMA tests because they have not been validated: they have not "provided needed refinement, but downward abridgement with crude popularization" [6].

It may be that the counselor will need to use something more subjective, a test that will yield qualitative rather than quantitative results. MacLatchey [5] offers such a plan. She has compiled a series of questions which has to do with general information a kindergarten child might be expected to know. Among the topics are time concepts, liquid measure, avoirdupois weight, linear measure, the speedometer, money, and thermal measure. Her list was used with 108 kindergarten children and the results as reported by Spayde [10] were compiled quantitatively. They gave, however, some indication of what a child of higher intelligence might be expected to know and could be used on an individual basis as another type of observational data. Perhaps, in time, its continued use could be matched with other measures of similar nature and a clearer picture of the nature of the small child's giftedness be drawn.

It may be that some children, suspected of giftedness but unable to perform because of an emotional disability or slight brain injury, will need to be referred by the counselor to an outside agency for testing or for treatment, or both.

The Case Study and Conference

At the very beginning, the counselor should set up a folder for each child containing the outline for a complete study, including the child's life history from birth, parental observations, and observations of any school personnel who come in contact with him. Case conferences can be held as needed or when most advisable.

The counselor would begin with the cases that seem most obvious and add to the list as the year progresses, giving priority in so far as possible to the child's work in the kindergarten during the first semester. Work in the first grade should follow as soon as possible. Since "the traditional intelligence tests are not independent of the effects of cultural environment on the student" [8] it is well to give special consideration to children from low socio-economic backgrounds so that every child will have equal advantage in the search for individual differences. The case study should be so thorough that none will be neglected.

Barr [1] gives one of the best descriptions of how to prepare and conduct case studies and conferences complete with forms, work sheets, and check lists for examples from which to derive one's own. It will be the counselor's responsibility to call a conference and to act as chairman of the team. The nurse and other teachers will sometimes be temporary members of the team and the permanent membership of the team will change from time to time as work begins in a new situation. Sometimes a parent will come into the conference.

The Follow-up

What will be done about it? What will the team do when one or more children of high ability are found?

In the case study the child's mental health as well as his physical health will have been determined. But immediately after identification must come an adequate program and the best means of motivation for highest achievement. If there is no special class for the child, grouping within the regular classroom will need to follow indentification. Grouping without ill effects can be done only in a classroom of kindergartners where the teacher is thoroughly cognizant of the implications involved in the highest conception of democracy, that, as Schiefele [9] has said, "There is nothing so unequal as the equal treatment of unequals." Passow [3] has gone one step further and suggested that, because of needed attention, the gifted child within the regular classroom may himself be handicapped.

Most authors, Cutts [2] for instance, recommend either acceleration or reorganiza-

tion of the primary grades into what is known as the "ungraded primary group." I believe it may be possible to reorganize the kindergarten to take care of the situation, particularly when the child is emotionally and socially immature, but it will be necessary that the following be carefully implemented:

1. To place such children with a teacher who is willing to make her daily program flexible and study the child thoroughly.

2. To arrange the room in such a way that there will be a "quiet room" or corner set off from the rest where a child can go to be alone sometimes or with a small group with whom he can work on his own level and be given materials and motivation that will challenge his highest efforts.

In order to plan for such a program, it would be necessary to consult the best kindergarten authorities such as those found in Leavitt [4] and to develop an entirely new idea in kindergartens, well substantiated by the better practices already established. It will take creative teachers to do this. The counselor should be responsible for much research and all the help he is capable of giving, within his bounds, to the teacher.

The question of acceleration must be thoroughly studied, especially in the light of Passow's lists of advantages and disadvantages [7].

Seeking the Brilliant Handicapped Child

It has been shown (Strauss [11]) that many hyperactive children who have a history of slight brain damage, but through lack of proper and adequate training are unable to perform normally, may be helped to redirect their sensory-perceptive and sensory-motor responses into new channels, thereby making fuller use of their high potential ability. Emotionally handicapped children may be affected beyond the helpful reach of the counselor and may need to be referred to an outside agency. It is the counselor's job to determine, after thorough study of the child and consultation with the teacher and parent, whether such referral is advisable.

Parent Counseling

It will be the responsibility of the counselor to see that the parent is fully informed of the program for his child, to explain the child to his parents, and to suggest helpful routines and plans for background enrichment.

It is well known that parents often have many fears in connection with their association with the teacher. The establishment of good home-school relationships is basic. There is still a barrier between parents and teachers that must be broken down if home and school are to function together [1]. It is the counselor's job to foster better relationships.

Conclusion

The areas indicated are probably the salient ones of concern to the school counselor. Elementary school counseling is a relatively new field, relatively new because the literature is only just beginning to scratch the surface in research on the actual work the counselor does and on that which should be required of him.

This we do know: the leaders of tomorrow are in the schools of today. It is going to take the combined knowledge and work of school and community personnel to discover the potential of each child who is to be educated in the nation's schools and to see that each has his fair opportunity to develop that potential to the utmost for the highest good that he is able to offer, both to himself and to his world.

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EDUCATORS TO TOUR EUROPE ON FIRST AEROSPACE WORKSHOP

The first International Aerospace Education Workshop to be held July 10–August 18, 1961, is a non-technical seminar for teachers, counselors, school administrators, and mature undergraduates. Sponsored by the University of Nevada Summer Session, the Nevada Wing, Civil Air Patrol, and the United States Air Force, the seminar offers six graduate or undergraduate credits. Beginning in San Francisco, the workshop itinerary includes Seattle, Anchorage, Copenhagen, Berlin, London, Paris, Rome, and Geneva. At each of the cities, participants will visit aerospace centers for briefing on the development and future of international aerospace activities and will also visit other places of interest.

The cost for the entire study is $1,695 which includes fees at the University, jet travel over the Polar route to Copenhagen, and air travel from the participant's home to San Francisco through Europe and return. First class hotel accommodations and some meals are also included.

According to the tour directors, the workshop will offer an unusual opportunity for teachers to "keep up with their pupils' fascination and knowledge about aerospace."

Applications and information about the seminar are available from Dr. Kenneth E. Young, Coordinator, International Aerospace Education Workshop, University of Nevada, Reno. June 1 is the application deadline.

Occupational Choice in the Negro College

WILLIAM F. BRAZZIEL, JR.

A HIGHLY DISTINGUISHING characteristic of the teaching profession is the rather large number of young people who train for it but never enter teaching and the number for whom this field is a second choice. Maul pointed out in his studies of teacher supply and demand that only 56 per cent of the secondary and 76 per cent of the elementary teacher trainees ever enter the profession [1]. Cottrell presented the problem quite succinctly by pointing out that as a consequence of the lack of vocational guidance in higher education, liberal arts colleges are full of young people, searching feverishly for some practical outlet for their constructive social energies. Similarly teacher education programs are full of young people many of whom have no conceivable intention of ever really becoming teachers [1].

Perhaps the most striking demonstration of such occupational choice can be seen in the Negro college in the South. Guba and associates have identified a unique need structure on the part of the students of these schools through the use of Edwards' Personal Preference Schedule. Brazziel and Boykin, using the Lee-Thorpe Occupational Interest Inventory, identified large numbers of students in teacher education programs in these institutions who have basic interests patterns which are quite foreign to the type of interests commonly thought necessary for successful teaching. Ramacker, using data from personal interviews and from Urban League surveys, pointed out that at a time when expanded opportunities for Negroes were becoming more prevalent in all fields, more than 70 per cent of the matriculants of these institutions were enrolled in teacher education. He also pointed out that a much smaller per cent of the graduates were entering the profession due to the great number of applicants for the few positions available each year [4].

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Purpose and Nature of Study

The purpose of this study was to identify some characteristics of the process of occupational choice in a Negro multi-purpose institution. It was specifically concerned with questions of the time in the school career when the choice of teaching as an occupation was made, those persons and school and social situations having the greatest influences on the student's decision to become a teacher in lieu of entering a more highly preferred field, and the nature and degree of lateral movement such students planned to make upon graduation. Data were collected from 170 teacher education students, a 10 per cent sample of 1,700 students of the College of Education of Southern University, by means of a questionnaire administered in small groups of 20–25 students. This instrument had been developed from data collected from a pilot group drawn from similar sources and had been pre-tested and revised. A discussion of vocational choice in college and an explanation of the intent of the study preceded administration of the instrument. The group consisted of 72 sophomores who had recently been admitted to the College of Education and 98 seniors who were engaged in student teaching. The data were analyzed for differences according to rural or urban residence, major teaching field, and, in some instances, sex and socio-eco-

nomic class. The 0.01 level of confidence as revealed by the test of Chi-Square was the criterion for the significance of differences.

Findings

The decision to enter the teaching profession was made by the largest proportion of students before they came to college. A significantly large per cent of the secondary majors made their decisions to become teachers in high school. A significant proportion of the elementary majors made their decisions in elementary school. No significant differences in the time of decision making were found when data were grouped by rural or urban residence or socio-economic status. The 12th grade and the freshman year at college was the point at which the greatest proportion made decisions but students seem to make decisions at all points in the high school career, *i.e.*, at end of elementary school, at end of high school, and at end of freshman studies program in college. When asked to vacate a niche in the school organization, it seems a decision became necessary and was made. Fewer decisions were made for example in grade 10 in all cases. TABLE 1 offers further data.

The most influential persons in the decision of the students to become teachers were parents and public school teachers. School counselors played an important role in the decisions of some secondary students in urban areas but their influence was singularly absent in the decision of elementary majors and majors at both levels from rural schools.

The most effective combinations of influences seems to have been that of the homeroom teacher and parents for secondary majors, and elementary teachers and parents for elementary majors. This difference was highly significant in the case of the rural elementary students with few persons other than parents and teachers entering into the decision-making process. TABLE 2 presents further data.

TABLE 1

Per cent of Students Who Made Decisions to Become Teachers at Various Points in the School Career

School Level	*Rural* *N = 101*	*Urban* *N = 69*	*Elementary* *N = 95*	*Secondary* *N = 75*	*Sophomores* *N = 72*	*Seniors* *N = 98*
Elementary school	21.7	15.9	21.0	9.3*	16.6	15.3
9th grade	14.8	13.0	10.5	18.6	16.6	12.2
10th grade	3.9	1.4	4.2	1.3	4.1	2.0
11th grade	10.8	13.0	12.6	10.6	9.7	11.2
12th grade	22.7	26.0	16.8	33.3*	25.0	23.4
Freshman year at college	26.6	27.4	21.0	33.3*	21.0	31.6

* Chi-Square significant at 0.01 level of confidence.

TABLE 2

Per Cent of Students Who Were Influenced by Various Persons in Their Decisions to Become Teachers

Persons	*Rural* *N = 101*	*Urban* *N = 69*	*Elementary* *N = 95*	*Secondary* *N = 75*	*Sophomores* *N = 72*	*Seniors* *N = 98*
Parents	27.6	29.2	32.6	21.7	26.2	30.2
Elementary teacher	26.6	21.0	34.6	5.7*	16.5	23.9
Homeroom teacher	20.0	21.5	17.8	24.6	20.8	20.8
Principal	9.5	6.1	6.9	10.1	6.9	9.3
Counselor	1.9	12.3*	1.9	13.0*	5.5	7.3
Others	14.4	16.9	5.9	24.6*	23.7	8.3*

* Chi-Square significant at 0.01 level of confidence.

More than half of the group stated that the teaching profession had been selected as a second choice of occupations. Significantly large numbers of these persons were found in the urban and secondary groups with extremely large proportions of the male elementary seniors (96 per cent) and the secondary sophomores (88.8 per cent) indicating that teaching was a second choice field. The smallest proportion was found among the senior female elementary majors (23.5 per cent).

A large proportion (46.4 per cent) of the sample also indicated that they intended to attempt some type of lateral occupational movement upon graduation. A significantly large number was found among secondary as compared to elementary and particularly among the urban secondary seniors (68.1 per cent). This is not very different from Maul's findings. The smallest number in this category was found among the rural elementary student teachers (28.5 per cent). Teacher training, if one can place a measure of faith in the stated intentions of this group, was to serve as a basis for careers in the armed services, the civil services, nursing, stenography, occupational therapy, and modeling; an odd contrast indeed to teacher education. The largest incidence of plans for lateral movement was found among students from the higher socio-economic group. TABLE 3 offers further data.

The need for a sure job upon graduation was the most significant single factor which seemed to have caused students to select teaching as an occupation in lieu of more highly preferred fields. An almost complete majority of the students who had indicated that teaching was their second choice also gave this reason for not pursuing their first choice in occupations.

A significantly large number also indicated the lack of specific information about other occupations as a reason for taking second choices in occupations. In the case of elementary majors the hesitancy to leave home for work coupled with marriage or marriage plans and the need for certainty in employment were the reasons most commonly given. There were significantly more seniors than sophomores who gave lack of occupational information and marriage as a reason; an indication perhaps of the recency of equal opportunities for college-trained Negroes or perhaps of the need for a socially acceptable defense mechanism. A significantly larger number of rural than urban students had their career decisions influenced by weakness in academic background or at least stated that such an influence had been operative. When the data were grouped according to social class, the differences were even greater, and when the numbers indicating felt inadequacies in languages and general academic preparation are combined, there was a formidable group of persons who felt that they had best take teaching because it was the least difficult of the curriculums. These data are presented in TABLE 4.

Implications

The majority of the Negroes in college today are being trained in Negro institutions in the South [4]. A large share of the responsibility for the achievement by the

TABLE 3

Per Cent of Students Who had Selected Teaching as a Second Choice of Fields and Who had Plans for Lateral Movement in Occupations

	Rural $N = 101$	*Urban* $N = 69$	*Elementary* $N = 95$	*Secondary* $N = 75$	*Sophomores* $N = 72$	*Seniors* $N = 98$
Had selected the teaching profession as a second choice	47.3	62.2*	43.0	65.6*	59.2	50.2
Planned to attempt a lateral movement in occupations upon graduation	40.6	52.2*	31.1	62.6*	47.3	45.2

* Chi-Square significant at 0.01 level of confidence.

TABLE 4

Per Cent of Students Who Offered Various Reasons for the Selection of Teaching as a Second Choice of Occupations

Reason	Rural N = 52	Urban N = 43	Elementary N = 40	Secondary N = 50	Sophomores	Senior N = 45
I need a sure job when I graduate	98.0	89.0	81.9	96.2	90.3	99.0
I did not know of specific jobs I could be sure of in other fields	43.3	51.1	57.5	46.8	54.0	87.0*
I do not want to leave my home parish	32.6	37.2	62.5	38.2*	20.0	36.7
I am married to or plan to marry a person already situated in my community	34.6	34.8	50.0	32.5*	14.0	53.0*
I can't get the money for the graduate study required in the field I prefer	34.6	27.9	25.0	55.0*	24.0	36.7
The curriculum in my preferred field is too difficult for my background	21.1	4.6*	10.0	22.5	12.0	14.2
I did not have foreign language in high school and this is required in the field I prefer	17.3	11.6	15.0	22.5	16.0	12.2

* Chi-Square significant at 0.01 level of confidence.

Negro of occupational and economic equality rests on the shoulders of the graduates of these schools. Of equal importance is the fact that Negro youth in public schools are taught, for the most part, by teacher education graduates from these schools. Negro children, by virtue of their poor backgrounds, need the very best teachers in every classroom. The best teachers, it seems safe to say, are most likely to come from the ranks of those students who made the selection of teaching their first choice in occupations.

The findings of this study indicate a need for guidance at all levels. To have a lad from a cane or cotton patch come to a college which is perhaps the first he has seen, enroll in a curriculum which he did not know existed, and prepare for a job in a place he has not been is asking a lot of an adolescent. As indicated by the data, Negro parents and public school teachers, especially in the deep South, must be convinced somehow that the opportunities of a greater society are for their children. Also, all American societies must continue to press for greater opportunities for Negro college graduates in the industrial and governmental occupational structure of this region. The children themselves must be given *specific* information on occupational opportunities, and they must be encouraged to venture and to grasp opportunity wherever it is found.

The directors of the non-teaching curriculums in the Negro colleges must develop better ways and means of "selling" their fields if matriculation for "insurance certificates" is to be lessened. Students must be prepared better for college work. They must also be more thoroughly apprised of the scholarships and loans which are available for study beyond the high school. They must further be urged to venture into a greater diversity of occupations in much greater numbers as the nation turns its energies toward the fuller development of its resources.

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The Deaf

in American Institutions of Higher Education

STANLEY K. BIGMAN

EACH year, a number of deaf students enter American colleges and universities. A large proportion of these young people attend Gallaudet College, which was founded exclusively for the deaf. Concerning others who are admitted to schools with hearing students there is quite meager information.[1]

This paper reports on a modest study, dealing with such students. The study has two purposes:

1. To form some estimate of the number of such students in any one year, and
2. To obtain an overview of their situation in college.

More specifically, the information gathered relates to such questions as these:

a. What kinds of colleges and universities do deaf students attend?
b. Do college admission policies affect their opportunities?
c. What kinds of communications skills do they possess, and how are such skills used in following class work?
d. How successful are they academically?
e. How much do they participate in extra-curricular activities?

Since the total number of students for whom data were obtained is under 100, our findings are necessarily tentative.

Sources of Data and Extent of Response

Data were collected through two mail surveys in the spring of 1955. The first was a postcard inquiry to registrars and comparable officers of 1,857 colleges and universities, constituting the whole of a list supplied by the U.S. Office of Education. This very broad list included four-year liberal arts colleges, normal schools, theological seminaries, technical institutes, conservatories of music, various other special types of institutions, and universities small and large, with separate listings for the last-named of each major school or component (*e.g.*, law and medical schools). There is consequently some assurance that appropriate institutions were not omitted. Response to this inquiry was quite gratifying: of the 1,857 recipients, 1,411 (about 76 per cent) answered. Replies were received from every state (except Nevada) and from Puerto Rico, the Canal Zone, and Guam. In addition to direct answers to questions, about 125 of the respondents volunteered some additional information.

The second survey was conducted by sending, to each school reporting any deaf students, appropriate quantities of a one-page schedule, to be completed and returned by the students. Response to this inquiry was less satisfactory. Of about 110 students reported by the schools, only 40 replied. However, various considerations discussed elsewhere suggest that the actual number of *deaf students pursuing college or university work on a regular full-time basis*, else-

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This article is based on data gathered by Eleanor Tibbetts, Registrar, Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C., and may be identified as Publication A-3, Office of Social and Environmental Research.

[1] The only data comparable to those reported here are contained in tabulations published annually in the *Volta Review* from 1928 through 1952. These were based on inquiry by mail among administrators of schools for the deaf concerning the subsequent academic careers of their alumni. See the *Volta Review*, 1952, Vol. 54, pp. 114–118, for the most recent tabulation.

where than at Gallaudet, was not over 65.[2] Since only 35 of the 40 student respondents met these criteria, the rate of response was over 50 per cent.

College Attendance and Admissions Policies

Seventy-five colleges or universities in 30 states each reported at least one deaf student in attendance. Among them were all types of institutions: large urban universities (*e.g.*, University of Chicago), state universities (Michigan, Minnesota, and others), liberal arts colleges (Oberlin, Skidmore, William and Mary, etc.), four theological seminaries, two teachers colleges, three art schools, a business college, and various small schools. Others mentioned having graduated one or more deaf students at some time. The deaf, then, are scattered among colleges, and not concentrated in just a few with a special interest in their problems.

This distribution is, however, conditioned by differential acceptance of the deaf. Some schools expressed what we might call an "exclusionist" attitude toward the deaf; for example:

> Cannot accept such students for the Priesthood of the Roman Catholic Church.
>
> A physical examination by the prospective student's physician, and a check by the college physician, eliminate such people as teacher candidates.
>
> We have faced this problem only once or twice in many years and have never seen how a fully deaf person could profit by instruction at this school. [A leading law school]
>
> I doubt if [we] would admit such a student because of her need for attention which we are not equipped to give. [A select women's liberal arts college]

One respondent expressed a totally opposite viewpoint:

> We would assist such a student if he applied and make every possible provision for him. [A college of arts and crafts]

Between these views, presumably, lie most of the schools reporting deaf students and many others which might accept them if they applied.

Following Lectures and Class Discussion

Of the students completing questionnaires, 35 were judged to be deaf (that is, having "hearing so severely impaired that it is not functional, even with a hearing aid, for the ordinary purposes of life"). Although seven students reported that they *could* understand speech with a hearing aid they qualified their answers with such comments as "sometimes" or "Yes, if I can understand their lips. Alone the hearing aid would be of small value."

Lipreading (or speechreading) is the most obvious technique for the deaf person to use as a substitute for his missing hearing. Registrars, commenting on their deaf students, volunteered such remarks as these:

> These students generally are able to lipread well.
>
> She is very skilful in reading lips.

The student respondents, asked to evaluate their own speechreading ability, offered a similar composite estimate. Eleven rated themselves excellent; fourteen, good; eight, fair; and two, poor. The opinions of both the registrars and the students are only the subjective ratings of untrained observers, but they appear to agree that lipreading skill explains the relative academic success of these students.

This, however, is not entirely true. The students were asked how they manage to follow lectures and classroom discussion. Fourteen did indeed mention lipreading. But 26 of the 35 indicated that they used the notes of "a high-ranking student" or "the student at my left," and two said they borrowed notes from their teachers. Six said that they relied on textbooks and other written materials. Two sat in the first row to help in lipreading and in the use of residual hearing.

The verbatim comments of the students clarify their situation. It becomes evident that lipreading is often of little practical value in the classroom. Here are the reports of students who considered their own lipreading "excellent":

[2] Bigman, Stanley K., "Deaf Students in Colleges and Universities" (an unpublished manuscript) discusses in detail the reasons for arriving at this estimate. In the same period, Gallaudet had an enrollment of 219 undergraduates, plus 82 students in its Preparatory Department.

I catch *very little* of lectures and class discussions but I get by by taking notes from my classmates and reading the textbook.

I rarely follow the lectures and the class discussions, for there are plenty of books around. I usually have a chum sitting next to me, so that [if] any new point comes up, he'll tell me.

By watching the teacher's lips at all times, then after class jot down . . . what I have remembered in class, and then check with my classmates' notes to see if I have everything. . . .

Always occupy front row center seat. For those courses in which I have difficulty in understanding the speaker, fellow-students always oblige by loaning me their notes. Further material is often copied from the blackboard. Also use (generally) several texts in addition to that prescribed for the course.

Understand practically all lectures and class discussions—even take part in discussions. Take notes from other girls. It's difficult for me to take notes and read lips at the same time.

Thus, even students with the most optimistic view of their own lipreading ability often relied to a large degree on borrowing or checking against their classmates' notes. Students who thought their lipreading merely "Good" apparently threw up their hands:

In most instances I've made no attempt to lip-read lectures. . . .

I never try to read lips—waste of time and energy.

Academic Achievement of Deaf Students

Whether they rely on lipreading or other communication techniques, are these deaf young persons able to keep up academically with their classmates? From the remarks volunteered by 27 of the registrars, the answer seems to be that some can and do. Among the least enthusiastic comments were these:

Neither [of two students] has outstanding talent, but they are not unduly disadvantaged by their deafness in keeping up with the curriculum.

Scholastically—barely average; difficulty in lecture courses.

Doing well with much help.

Other remarks were more laudatory, for example:

A very bright student, who can neither hear nor speak clearly, and has no obvious difficulty either academically or socially.

He is an excellent student (B average).

Is honor student in accounting.

One, a senior, is an outstanding art student. . . .

These last quotations may raise the question: Is it only in special fields that deaf students are able to report achievement? From our small store of data, the answer appears to be negative. The more enthusiastic descriptions apply to students in a variety of fields including (in addition to art and accounting, mentioned above) mathematics, "mechanical technology," and theology. Others were doing "satisfactory" work in philosophy, psychology, biology, chemistry, English, etc.

Social Participation

The score of registrars who offered their own observations paint a rather optimistic picture. These are some of their comments:

He has made a very fine adjustment here.

She . . . has no obvious difficulty, academically or socially.

Socially—member of national sorority; excellent adjustment.

One had a definite period of maladjustment. All indications are that both are gaining from their college life and are happy.

Of the 35 deaf students reporting on themselves, 21 were living in dormitories. Many were participating in a wide range of social organizations, fraternities, teams, and clubs; although others (like some hearing students) seemed to feel that time was too short to allow for more than study. Chosen at random, here are some of the posts the deaf found to occupy: cheerleader, fencing instructor, president of chess club, member of yearbook and magazine staff, member of student council recreation committee, regional treasurer of national sectarian student organization, treasurer of dorm council.

The activities reported by four young women were of particular interest. Students, respectively, at William and Mary, Oberlin and later Wayne University, Skidmore, and Western College for Women (Oxford, Ohio), they mentioned these activities:

1. Varsity hockey, basketball, and lacrosse; assistant manager for softball intramurals; intramural

representative for dormitory; member, National Honorary Literary Society.

2. Participated in Gilbert and Sullivan players (stage and costume committees); participated in work of American Friends Service Committee.

3. Captain of several teams; treasurer of class and of dormitory; chairman of several committees; part in school play.

4. College newspaper reporter; college magazine editor; publicity director of literary club.

These, obviously, were not four "typical" deaf students; not every deaf person applying to a college would leave such a record. Indeed, few hearing students do.

Concluding Comments

From so slight a study no conclusive answers to the questions raised can be expected. There are, however, some implications that are worth stating:

1. *On admission of deaf students to colleges whose students can hear:* The comments of some registrars on their willingness or unwillingness to accept deaf applicants seemed to the writer to have overtones of prejudice, in the broadest sense of the term. The judgment that deaf students *per se* require special "attention which we are not equipped to give," or that they are incapable of completing the course of a religious seminary, is reminiscent of categorical and stereotyped attitudes toward ethnic minorities. In some instances, at least, the deaf student faces treatment as a group member, rather than as an individual person.

Such categorical thinking may work in two ways. On the one hand, the student may be excluded from a school in which he would be capable of doing satisfactory work. On the other hand, the eager sympathy of some admissions officers may work equal injustice in the opposite direction. A student may be admitted, despite a poor academic record, *because* he is deaf (and therefore, presumably, needs extra help). His teachers may make allowances for him and treat him with undue gentleness because of his handicap, and he may be awarded a degree that he did not earn. There is no concrete evidence that this occurs. It may, however, be relevant that, intermittently, students who are unable to meet the entrance requirements of Gallaudet's subfreshman preparatory department are accepted by other colleges.

It is suggested here that, as in the case of persons of minority-group backgrounds, the deaf student must be viewed on his merits as an individual. One registrar, commenting on student achievement, observed:

> Since these students were so carefully screened [by the State Division of Vocational Rehabilitation], their performance has been adequate.

Presumably the individual college or university admissions officer can perform a similar screening. It is evident from the data presented above that *some* deaf students are capable of creditable academic performances under normal competitive conditions.

2. *On the difficulties of the deaf college student:* It would be less than honest to pretend that the deaf person studying in a college planned for the hearing does not face great difficulty. We noted above that most students felt they could not rely on speechreading for much help in class.

The reasons for this attitude are fairly obvious. Even the best speechreader is helpless, as one student pointed out, "when the instructor turns his face around." Another remarked:

> I am unable to follow class discussions, as all the desks are arranged in rows and facing the instructor.

Of course much depends on the size and organization of a class. In a room with 20 to 40 other students, the deaf person must probably resign himself to merely waiting out the discussion. "Small classes have helped," wrote one student; and it is easy to visualize the difference.

In sum, there are problems for the deaf student who seeks a degree from a regular college. These are, in part, not to be resolved; a lecturer cannot help turning his head (or even, sometimes, his back). In a fairly large class the arrangements of seats may be inflexible. On the other hand, the general friendliness of students usually makes it possible for the deaf person to utilize someone else's notes as a supplement to his own efforts.

Letters

from our readers

Journal Authors Praised

To the Editor:

I must convey my hearty appreciation for the lead articles by Shoben and Rogers in the last two issues [January and February] of the *Personnel and Guidance Journal*. They stand as strong representations of what characterizes the best of professional self-understanding. While the usual valuable articles on all manner of topics necessary for professional competence appear with regularity, these that stand out for their special significance in reaching for a professional maturity are no less and are perhaps more necessary in the long run. They serve, also, to speak both helpfully and critically in relation to several disciplines. The disciplines should be helped to focus their energies with more maturity as a result. A new respect for the profession, that already has earned rapid respect, can be achieved with articles of the stature of these. It may be that the profession may yet be able to speak with authority on topics where perennial personal preference has muddled the issues and where loud spokesman are already crying their views with much success in some centers of learning. Crucial debate is in progress regarding the most fundamental foundations of western civilization within the ranks as well as without. Freedom, man's nature, the nature of the relationships he is permitted, the educational schemes utilized to foster such relationships, the very social structures in which man is to live—these are the issues on which civilization will fall or will be sustained and recreated. Let our profession speak loud and often what it has to say in as sound a manner as was done in these valuable articles!

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The Clinically Trained Minister

The days of the minister as a contributor to mental illness are on the wane. Today, in most theological institutions, ministers are being required to square their theological concepts with the latest findings of the social sciences. What's more, they are doing this not only in classrooms but often in actual situations.

Since one of the goals of the American Personnel and Guidance Association is to make the best use of community resources, this writer, who is a minister now doing student personnel work, felt that many readers might be interested in the type of education received by a clinically trained minister. Because of this type of training, there are a growing number of excellently qualified religious personnel who can be of help in the area of guidance.

The following is the background of one clinically trained minister. There are others with more training, some with less.

His undergraduate degree in psychology is followed by four years of seminary training which includes, besides religious subjects, advanced work in sociology and psychology. After graduation, he starts his clinical training—one or two years in a hospital setting, receiving the same pay as the medical intern.

Before he can be accepted for this training, he is interviewed by a clinical psychologist who administers the Rorschach, the Thematic Apperception Test, and the Wechsler-Bellevue Scale. If he had been among those turned down, he would have been encouraged to seek therapy before working intensively with people.

During the first three months in the hospital, he visits the sick taking careful verbatim records of his visits which are discussed and criticized in a daily seminar. The seminar gradually develops into a group therapy session. During this period, he also attends lectures by school staff members as well as doctors in the hospital including the psychiatry class for senior medical students. Throughout the year, he is required to read a book a week in the fields of psychology, psychiatry, theology, and others. A special research project is begun also, in collaboration with the doctors along the lines of religion and health.

In about three months, the rough edges have been chipped away by face-to-face encounter with people in crisis, the group therapy sessions, and many hours of his own personal counseling. He is then given a few people whom he is to counsel personally. Here he consults with the psychiatrists and other doctors who referred the patients, as well as his own supervisor who checks his work carefully.

Careful case histories are kept, and these are presented in staff conferences. During this time, he also sits in on the staff conferences of the doctors in the hospital as well as the full-staff conferences at a nearby mental hospital. Along with this, he works in the Psychiatric Clinic one day a week with the full psychiatric team.

In all this, he finds where his role fits into the team, and he learns to interpret his beliefs in terms of the real needs of people.

If he stays the second year, he is given training in group therapy, more intensive study in counseling, as well as in teaching others. Some go on from here to more advanced academic work of either the Doctor of Philosophy or the Doctor of Theology and take positions as pastors, hospital chaplains, industrial chaplains, student workers, and others.

The program outlined above is just one; the others are variations on the same theme. Only a few ministers have had this training to date, but the number is growing. Some of these men are in your community and available. They have been trained in a team approach and most of them are ready and willing to work with others.

Donald L. Clark
Resident Counselor
University of Florida

APGA Members Participate in Indian Conference

To the Editor:

The "All-India Educational and Vocational Guidance Association" held its fifth annual conference at Hyderabad on October 26–28. The American Personnel and Guidance Association was represented by three U. S. A. members: John Odgers, Guidance Consultant of the Technical Cooperation Mission; Charles Riddle, Director of Guidance of the Punjab Synod; and the writer. Dr. Frank Fletcher left India just prior to the conference.

Approximately 100 persons representing the Central and state bureaus of psychology, Central and state employment officers, private vocational guidance bureaus, universities and training colleges, and headmasters, counselors, and teachers of secondary schools met to discuss guidance concerns in contemporary India. Subjects on the agenda were: Counselor Preparation, Use of Tests in Guidance, Vocational Guidance of the Handicapped, Counseling Problems in India, Coordination between Employment Offices and Guidance Bureaus, and Guidance Services in Other Countries. Formal presentations on these topics were followed by spirited discussions. The work of the Association is carried out by an Executive Committee and a number of Sub-Committees. The Association publishes the *Journal of Vocational and Educational Guidance.*

India faces tremendous problems. She is engaged in a great political and economic experiment, the outcome of which has implications far beyond the borders of this country. Education and guidance will play a crucial role in the years ahead. The leadership of the guidance movement here has a vision of the potential place of guidance in the emerging scene. The "All-India Educational and Vocational Guidance Association" is anxious for interchange and help from the American Personnel and Guidance Association. This exchange can be mutually profitable. To respond constructively is both an unusual opportunity and a moral responsibility. Such a response would be consistent with the international role of APGA so creatively projected by the Executive Director in the November issue of the journal.

Atlee Beechy
Fulbright Lecturer in Guidance
Allahabad University
Allahabad, India

Standardization of Vocational Materials Seconded

To the Editor:

I would like to support the appeal of Mr. Jack Down, who, in his letter of February, suggests the need for standardization of vocational material in terms of size and content.

Although concerned with irregularities in size and format, I am just as concerned with the generally poor quality of content of much of the vocational literature distributed by private industry. Much of it is pure propaganda. I would like to suggest that APGA initiate a plan for screening such materials.

Richard G. Neal
Vocational Counselor
Wakefield High School
Arlington, Virginia

A.S.C.A. CALLS FOR 1962 PROGRAM SUGGESTIONS

The American School Counselor Association asks its members to make suggestions for the ASCA program at the 1962 APGA Convention in Chicago. Of particular assistance in planning the ASCA program would be ideas for program topics, areas of concern to the membership, names of persons whose participation in the program would insure quality of presentation, and notice of current research that will be available for convention presentation. Send suggestions to Bob Popovich, 1962 ASCA Program Chairman, Homewood-Flossmoor High School, Flossmoor, Illinois.

Books Reviewed

reviews of recent publications . . . by various contributors

PERSONNEL SERVICES IN EDUCATION, The fifty-eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, edited by Nelson B. Henry. (Prepared by the Yearbook Committee, Melvene D. Hardee, Chairman.) Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1959. 303 pp. $3.25.

THE GUIDANCE movement was born in a time of crisis and has grown from one emergency to another. There can be a feeling of pride in the manner with which guidance personnel have responded to crises such as the depression of the thirties, the readjustment to civilian life of returning service men at the end of World War II, and the current shortages of highly trained manpower. This feeling is especially justified when one realizes that the problems were often already "out of hand" before guidance personnel workers became involved and that they have not been able to "choose the ground" where they would attack the problems. However, one definitely gets the impression from this yearbook that personnel work is emerging as a profession which is beginning to have a strong voice in determining its own destiny.

The yearbook provides, in a sense, a sociological study of a profession which is in the process of becoming. Feder in addressing himself to problems such as standards, job titles or roles, skills needed by different workers, and professional identities relates these problems to criteria of professionalism. Hitchcock and his collaborators give eloquent expression to the need for the services now being performed by personnel workers. Actually, all parts of the yearbook are concerned either directly or indirectly with the reason for being of the personnel work profession.

Undoubtedly, most professional workers in the field will agree with the points of view expressed in the book. One is left, however, with a vague concern over whether or not society is willing to sanction the roles personnel workers are trying to establish for themselves. The National Defense Education Act might be an affirmative indication, but the passage of such an act would have been doubtful if the crisis precipitated by Sputnik had not arisen.

To the reviewer, the most exciting part of the yearbook is Section I which is concerned with the sociological, philosophical, and psychological principles underlying personnel services. Milby and Reeves make a somewhat pessimistic analysis of the evolving nature of the society in which personnel workers function. Nevertheless, the challenges are clearly and forcefully presented. Wrenn deals with the philosophical and psychological bases of personnel services. His topic is one which has long been in need of serious attention, and he has made a very good start. The reviewer would like to see him expand his ideas into a full-length book.

Three authors collaborated on a chapter dealing with research. Borow analyzes trends in relation to the settings in which the trends have occurred. Pepinsky discusses some research on the student in the educational setting, while Dressel is concerned with the relationship between personnel services and instruction. This chapter is by no means a review of research but the reader is left with a good picture of many important types of research now being conducted in the guidance field.

One section of the yearbook is devoted to the status of personnel services. Erickson and Hatch outline some general principles of administration, while Shibber discusses a number of organizational patterns and procedures. Berg's chapter is concerned with resources available to the personnel staff, Bennett's with the basic functions and procedures of personnel work. The reviewer is somewhat disappointed with this section because the enumerated procedures and organizational patterns are not related back to the chapters which are concerned with philosophical, psychological, and sociological principles underlying personnel work. But perhaps this is asking too much considering the present developmental stage of the profession.

Dr. Hardee and her committee are to be

roundly applauded for the excellent job they have done on this yearbook. It will be recognized as one of the most important books of the decade in the guidance field. It is certainly "must" reading for the beginning student as well as for the old pros.—LAWRENCE H. STEWART, *Associate Professor, School of Education, University of California, Berkeley.*

THE STRONG VOCATIONAL INTEREST BLANK: RESEARCH AND USES, edited by Wilbur L. Layton. (Number 10, Minnesota Studies in Student Personnel Work.) Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1960. 191 pp. $3.50.

AS WITH OTHERS in the series, Monograph Number 10 is a collection of manuscripts by leaders in the personnel field presented to a conference concerned with a central theme. In this case, as described by Layton, the editor, "The papers in this volume were presented at an institute on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank at the University of Minnesota on February 7–9, 1955. The conference was held to honor E. K. Strong, Jr., for his valuable and outstanding contribution to psychology through more than thirty years of work in interest measurement."

The contribution of this monograph to the literature is considerable although diminished somewhat by the almost six-year lapse between the presentation of the papers and the publication date. This is, perhaps, particularly true of John Darley's analysis of "The Theoretical Basis of Interests" which is a highlight summary of a portion of his own monograph (with Theda Hagenah), "Vocational Interest Measurement: Theory and Practice" which appeared in 1955.

E. K. Strong, Jr., has contributed two papers to the monograph, "An Eighteen Year Longitudinal Report on Interests" and "Use of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank in Counseling." Other contributors are Ralph Berdie, Leona Tyler, Donald Super and Helen Moser, Donald Hoyt, Theda Hagenah, Kenneth Clark, and Dallis Perry.

The monograph should be a gold mine of ideas for anyone concerned with research in the area of interests. Although the Strong VIB is the instrument around which most of the papers are oriented, the broader problems of interest measurement, interest development, and interest theory are thoroughly analyzed. References to other publications are abundant; Ralph Berdie alone gives 94 references, most of them since 1950, in his paper on "Validities of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank."

In addition to Strong's review of his own follow-up work, Tyler's paper on "The Development of Interests" and the Super-Moser paper on "Correlates of Interest Maturity" have particular research interest as descriptions of early data from longitudinal studies in progress. Tyler relates the approaches, problems, and findings from her study of children's interests as the children developed from first graders to fourth graders. Super and Moser draw on the original data from the Career Pattern Study; this includes material from seven dissertations and other work based on this project.

Although the uses of the Strong are directly tackled by E. K. Strong, Jr., in the final chapter, the usefulness of interest measures are generally left to be implied from the discussions of research. The counselor with little statistical or research sophistication will probably be disappointed if he expects to be able to skim this monograph for uncomplicated answers to questions he may have about using the Strong. This is a monograph reporting on issues and research at the frontiers of understanding about interest and its measurement. Many counselors are by choice or job demands back in the supply area grappling with more mundane matters. For these people the monograph may have little to offer. On the other hand, for the scholar-researcher in the area of interests this is a "must" publication.—CHARLES F. WARNATH, *Counselor, University of Oregon.*

TEACHING MACHINES AND PROGRAMMED LEARNING, A Source Book, edited by A. A. Lumsdaine & Robert Glaser. Washington: Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association of the United States, 1960. 721 pp. $7.50.

CALLED by the editors a source book, *Teaching Machines and Programmed Learning* contains major contributions from published articles, speeches, and less widely circulated reports. The justification for the book is that educators and psychologists are seeking information and are encountering difficulty in locating material from the widely-scattered literature. The intent was not merely to bring together material on devices but to bring into perspective the important principles as well as problems in the programming of subject matter. Even so, the editors seemed to be overly intrigued with "devices." To be sure, the pioneering work of S. L. Pressey, the imaginative writing of Skinner, the provocative chapter by Gilbert, and a few chapters by a small number of researchers, *e.g.,* Amsel and Porter, make for very interesting reading about the learning process. The editors have done a remarkably fine job in grouping the reports. As can be expected there is overlap and duplication. However, this is of no great concern since the reader will not approach the book with a "cover-to-cover" reading attitude.

The volume has five main parts. Part I presents an overview and a number of additional articles by the editors most of which could have been cut. Part II brings together the work of Pressey and his students on self-instructional test-scoring devices from the period of the early 1920's to mid 1950's. Part III presents Skinner's basic articles dealing with the implications of his research on experimental analysis of behavior for the teaching process. Included are reprints authored by many who have followed Skinner's lead, *e.g.,* Porter, Homme, Holland, and Ferster. This is the most important section of the volume. Part IV is intended to present reprints from "diverse origins" not necessarily following the direction of Pressey and Skinner. The section, unfortunately, is "device oriented" and the cafeteria offerings of the editors are less competent than would be expected. The special treat seems to be the 1957 article by Ramo on a *New Technique in Education* but his "coming crisis in education" doesn't sound sophisticated in this section. However, there are other reprints including Glaser, Briggs, Crowder, etc. In Part V, called *Some Recent Work . . .,* the editors include selections that "have been largely stimulated by Pressey and Skinner." Regardless of who

did the stimulating it is an exciting section marred only by the editors' too strong belief in the cafeteria approach. Several papers deal with experiences in programming specific subject matter and may be of interest to some readers, but possibly should have been put in a separate section even though the content seems quite unexciting and unimportant. Stimulating and worth careful reading are the papers by Pressey on perspective and major problems in teaching machines, by Homme and Glaser on programming verbal learning sequences, by Gilbert on relevance of laboratory investigations to self-instructional programming, and by Amsel on error responses and reenforcement schedules.

The editors have made outstandingly fine contributions by providing excellent introductions to each of the five parts. These plus their concluding remarks are significant landmarks in themselves.

Even more valuable to the researcher than the five parts is the annotated compilation of all known published as well as unpublished papers as of June, 1960, dealing with auto-instructional problems (Appendix 1). Information is provided concerning the accessibility of the abstracted materials and methods used in preparing the abstracts. For example, the editors accepted the responsibility for determining the length of abstracts and how they should be cited, thus enhancing the usefulness of the bibliography.

The contents of the source book (most of the contents can be accumulated through other means but not as easily) is of interest to those who are dedicated to applied learning either through research or administration. However, let's not go overboard on this teaching machine business. Devices and gadgets are not the substitutes for learning (to this the editors agree!). And now that we have a source book that will be at hand on desks and not relegated to the bookcase (for a few months) wouldn't it be fine if more of these creative psychological researchers would be stimulated to pursue the engineering development of a machine less intently and to engage more enthusiastically in the study of human behavior, the learning process, and the intimate personal factors in individual learning.—D. D. SMITH, *Director, Psychological Sciences Division, Office of Naval Research.*

AUTOCRACY AND DEMOCRACY: AN EXPERIMENTAL INQUIRY, by Ralph K. White & Ronald O. Lippitt. New York: Harper & Bros., 1960. 330 pp. $6.00.

IN AN AGE of high professional mobility and shifting beliefs and allegiances, it is rare to find social scientists whose research and writing tasks have remained topically and ideologically consistent over a period of years. Ralph White and Ronald Lippitt are two such persons, their persistent concern with "autocracy" and "democracy" being in no small measure attributable to inspiration received from the late Kurt Lewin —a circumstance that the authors gratefully acknowledge. A refugee from Nazi persecution, Lewin became convinced in his latter years of the urgent necessity to make broad application of his psychological theory to problems of human survival and social growth. And so he began what Ronald Lippitt, at the time of Lewin's death in 1947, appropriately called "adventures in interdependence," shared at Iowa and at M.I.T. with a brilliant group of disciples who were personally devoted to Lewin and dedicated to the testing and promotion of his ideas.

It was a Lewin "passionately concerned for . . . the fruition of democracy" (p. viii) who guided Lippitt in his doctoral dissertation: a study of the effects of experimentally manipulated "social climates" upon children's behavior. Then Lippitt and White teamed with Lewin in a modified repetition of the experiment. Begun nearly a quarter of a century ago, these studies have since been acknowledged as classics in the field of social psychology. In many respects they are prototypic of later research and scientific and didactic writing in a broad area of applied social psychology, variously referred to as "group dynamics" or—less parochially—as "group process."

In the present volume, the studies are once more dusted off as the central exhibit in a discussion of the now familiar concepts of "autocracy," "democracy," and "laissez-faire." First we are given an introduction to the concepts themselves, then to the design and procedure used in the studies, then to the experimental findings, then to case studies of particular club groups and of particular boys who participated as subjects in the experiments. Finally, we are given a

more general, up-dated discussion of "democracy," its management and institutionalization, and its problems—both resolved and unresolved. Interspersed throughout the book are relevant anecdotal and extrapolative remarks, labeled "political commentary." The later discussion, especially, is enriched by reference to a number of published studies that have appeared since the pioneer research at Iowa.

White and Lippitt have done a remarkable job of synthesizing the early Iowa research with much that has occurred subsequently in this country and throughout the world. This is particularly impressive since both authors have had world-wide exposure to problems of group and national development, and one cannot fail to be struck by the authority with which the senior author, White, speaks as Chief of the Communism Analysis Division in the Office of Research and Analysis of the United States Information Agency. Yet one cannot help wondering whether the extrapolation of findings has been carried too far. True, there is reference to a parallel series of research studies conducted in Japan by Japanese social scientists, and the authors are well acquainted with the political history of their generation. Yet constructive alternatives to the authors' salient ideology are neither cited nor ventured, even "off the top of the head." This seems hardly fair when one considers that a whole lot of contradictory thinking and evidence is available, *e.g.*, in the publications of social and cultural anthropologists and of organization theorists, who will be struck by the absence of reference to their work. Whether sin of omission or commission, the authors' failure thus to question or to rebut the formal logic or empirical validity of their own beliefs is regrettable. And in view of published methodological criticism of the Iowa research, which is pivotal in the present text, the reader is entitled to a more detached interpretation of the data than the authors have afforded him.

In spite of these and other inevitable weaknesses, however, *Autocracy and Democracy* is well worth reading, both by those who have never been exposed to the Iowa "social climate" research and by those for whom it is an old and familiar acquaintance. White and Lippitt have given us a welcome, up-to-date account of their significantly important attack upon a crucial problem of our time.—Harold B. Pepinsky, *Professor of Psychology, Ohio State University.*

Characteristics of Teachers, Their Description, Comparison, and Appraisal, by David G. Ryans. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1960. xxiii + 416 pp. $7.50.

This long-awaited and carefully documented research study deals with certain personal and social characteristics of teachers. It describes a nine-year coordinated program of unparalleled educational research, sponsored by The American Council on Education with a distinguished advisory group, supported to the tune of $193,900 by the Grant Foundation, and directed by Dr. Ryans from a UCLA field office. A large and complex undertaking, difficult of brief review, it sampled the behaviors and self-report of 6,000 teachers in 1,700 schools in 450 school districts, involving over 8,000 independent observations by trained observers on nearly 4,000 teachers, as well as nearly a hundred other specific projects.

The book abounds in statistical detail, interestingly presented for the most part, there being 120 tables and 13 figures in the nine chapters. Not one but over a dozen scoring keys are produced for the complex instrument devised to measure teaching effectiveness "correlates." There is a plethora of symbols so that one can hardly tell the variables without a program, and in this sense the volume demands much of the reader in learning its special vocabulary. While statistics are voluminous, explication and interpretation are parsimonious, for the writer sternly curbs the slightest tendency to overstate his findings. The end result in at least a few cases is like Ole Man River who "must know somethin', but don't say nothin'."

The major objectives of the study are three: "The identification and analysis of some of the patterns . . . which may characterize teachers"; "The development of paper-and-pencil instruments suitable for the estimation of certain patterns of classroom behavior and personal qualities of teachers"; and "The comparison of charac-

teristics of various groups of teachers." Procedure included the development through critical incident technique of a glossary and class observation record; subsequently much time was wisely spent in the careful training of specially selected observers in class observations using the glossary and record in an attempt to make objective analysis of the presence or absence of certain teacher and pupil behaviors in the classroom. Assumption was made that long-term pupil gain was associated with immediate classroom behavior of teachers and pupils and that these were objectively assessable by trained observers. Further that when these observations had been factor analyzed and compared with schedules filled out by the observed teachers, "correlates" capable of predicting the major factors of classroom behavior could be adduced. Thus the chain from long-term pupil gains to paper-and-pencil self-report "correlates" was completed.

The book starts with a history of the development of the project which impresses one with its detail and complexity and the qualifications of the director. Following a somewhat narrow discussion of theory, there is a careful chapter on criterion analysis and validity, and here Dr. Ryans is at his best. Then follows a chapter on methodology, with such detailed statistical control and precise explication as to serve as a virtual manual of procedure for future researchers. From the factor analyses of observations three major factors of teacher behavior emerge to dominate the remainder of the book:

X: understanding, friendly vs. aloof, restricted,
Y: responsible, systematic vs. evading, unplanned,
Z: stimulating, imaginative vs. dull, routine.

Other variables include two factors: sociability and stage appearance, several correlates of teacher attitude, and the control variables of intelligence, adjustment, and validity of response. False starts and disappointments are recorded with impassive rigor: some validity coefficients in predictive studies turned out poorly, a pupil gains study was abandoned when unexpected costs and difficulties arose, a mailed sample using administrator's ratings proved of little value.

There is a long and tedious chapter of statistics on breakdowns by sex, age, grade, geographical distribution, subject taught, size of school and community, etc. A more popular chapter is the one on characteristics of outstanding teachers which is replete with hints for the investigator, the administrator, and the training supervisor. The book concludes with a summary which the wise will read first. Following the limitations of the research and a summary of needed research there is a listing of staff and specific projects in the appendix. This includes 98 projects, and a staff of 75 among whom one finds the names of Fulkerson, Jensen, Seagoe, Sheldon, Wandt, and the reviewer, all of whom have subsequently published in the area and many of whom got their start with the study.

Without doubt this study is a major contribution to the field of research in teacher effectiveness, and it will serve as a model, especially in its methodology and control techniques for years to come. The multiphasic aspects of the research wherein several methods or samplings check on one another add to the rigor of the statistics and the confidence which will be placed in the results. It is difficult indeed to criticize, much less evaluate the implications of an undertaking so vast and complex. The fact that Dr. Ryans was able to orchestrate the whole enterprise over nearly a decade shows considerable leadership ability to say nothing of the evident merit of the statistical design involved.

The fact is, however, that the study spent nearly $200,000, a sum not large in scientific research, but nearly unprecedented in research in teacher characteristics. Are there unprecedented results? The answer will probably be disappointing to all but the statistically-minded. For if there is one over-riding weakness in this monumental work it is that considering the size of the study, perhaps not enough creativity was employed at the outset. It carries a certain method as far as it may be taken, but future research is likely to proceed along somewhat different lines. No pupil ratings, for example, were employed; few self or peer ratings of teachers occur, although these methods were available. There was some scale analysis of the MMPI and other tests (which was disappointing), but no item analysis. There is little analysis of the cognitive, situational, and other aspects of the teacher-learning process such as are at least

commenced in the Harvard, Utah, Bank Street, and Brooklyn College studies.

The major significance of this report lies in the methodological design and statistical control. It gives precise information on a number of highly technical aspects. It has provided a useful research instrument which it is hoped Dr. Ryans will make generally available. It exhausts a certain line of inquiry about teacher effectiveness, and will not need replication. While it has not "cracked" the problem of the prediction of teacher effectiveness, it has provided many valuable clues, much necessary groundwork, and a springboard for most future investigations.—JOHN CURTIS GOWAN, *Professor, Education Division, San Fernando Valley State College, Northridge, California.*

FELLOWSHIPS IN THE ARTS AND SCIENCES, 1961–62, by Michael Edmund Schiltz. Fourth Edition. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1960. 149 pp. $3.00.

THIS IS MY THIRD review for the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* of *Fellowships in the Arts and Sciences.* This new edition is authored by Michael Edmund Schiltz. The other two volumes were authored by Virginia Bosch Potter. This new edition reflects changes by a new author. The author has followed in the main the form of listings and the basic research techniques that have made his job much easier. The changes have not made significant differences in the value and use of the book.

In this reviewer's opinion, the previous editions with more information in the earlier chapters for the fellowship applicant were important. In my opinion it would have been preferable if this section had had the same emphasis. I believe the author's judgment to omit certain chapters—Study Abroad and Senior and Faculty Awards—is well taken. His omission of special awards may be open to question. There are many special awards that are not well known which carry high individual stipends and are not listed in any one source.

The book itself now contains two very small chapters entitled "To the Fellowship Applicant" and "Predoctoral Fellowships." Many of the foundations will be pleased with the author's statement that applicants should not make inquiries of funds and foundations when foundation interests are not along the lines of the applicant's qualifications. More and more funds are not answering requests for information from obviously unqualified applicants.

There seems to be a need for more information on independent research awards. A few funds listed in the other volumes have not been included in this one. Many experienced scholars seeking help for research projects are not acquainted with all the resources available to them.

The bibliography is a selective one. Many worth-while publications are listed, but others helpful for the applicant seeking assistance are not included.

Much more information could have been presented on various loan funds, including state loan funds such as those in Rhode Island, and many other loan funds offered by banks, insurance companies, and private organizations.

It may not be necessary for this book to be published as often as it is. More time may well be devoted to gathering information about more funds that are available for study or research in the arts and sciences.

In spite of these minor criticisms, the reviewer is pleased to repeat again that for the candidate who needs financial help in order to further graduate training and research, as well as for counseling psychologists, counselors, and librarians, this new edition is recommended without reservation as a needed addition to resource material on student aid.—S. NORMAN FEINGOLD, *National Director, B'nai B'rith Vocational Service, Washington, D. C.*

THE TWO-WAY MIRROR, by Richard T. Morris with the assistance of Oluf M. Davidsen. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1960. 215 pp. $4.50.

THIS STUDY begins phase two of a series of studies under the supervision of the Social Science Research Council's Committee on Cross-cultural Education. These studies are not intended to evaluate exchange programs but to explore what happens in such

programs and to analyze the relationships between certain conditions in the experience of cross-cultural education.

In the four preceding studies concerned with single nationalities, it was discovered that "the foreign student's status feeling undergoes a severe shock upon arrival in the United States." Increased concern about and awareness of national status seem universal. "There is found in the new culture a whole new group of ascribers of status—mysterious, unknown, using new criteria."

The researcher was prompted to do this study for two reasons: one, to examine the relationship between the newly introduced strength of national status in the foreign student's self-image and his adjustment in the United States. And second, as a sociologist, he is interested in what happens to an individual who moves from one situation in society to another, not because he has changed, but because those who place him have changed or the criteria for placement have changed.

Combining the questionnaire technique with the presence of an interviewer to interpret questions and assure rapport, it was hoped by the researcher to avoid the sometimes unsystematic, non-comparable results of an interview, at the same time, to avoid the hazards of a pencil-and-paper answer. It is a question in the mind of the reviewer whether the goal was achieved. It seems regrettable that with the 364 students from 65 countries available at U.C.L.A. that a stratified, systematic sample was not used with a well-developed and carefully conducted scheduled interview, probably with several contacts for each interviewer.

The Foreign Student Adviser will find the discussion in the first chapter valuable as a reminder of the national status feelings that foreign students may have during the sojourn period. The last two chapters add other observations that may give useful bits of insight to the counselor concerning favorableness toward the United States and satisfaction with the training. The first of these two chapters describes the images of America held by the students interviewed. Even these images seem to be influenced by feelings of national status. As the counselor reads the last chapter on implications, he will likely be impelled to return to the preceding technical discussion to search for justification of some statements made. It is conceivable that a depth interview would have resulted in other and different suggestions to the practitioner.

The sociologist will be interested in the analysis of national status into subjective, accorded, and objective with their interrelationship and the relationship of each to the four adjustment indices named as (1) favorableness to the United States, (2) personal satisfaction with stay, (3) satisfaction with education and training facilities, and (4) amount and kind of social contact. The great interest of the researcher in the need to understand the change of individual status resulting from great mobility should attract the interest of any reader who is aware of explosive nature of mobility in society today.

Certain cautions are stated by the researcher. First, the study is made in an urban community and findings may not apply to students in other sorts of communities. Second, the narrowing of focus inevitably underemphasizes equally important and interesting facets. And third, to study only the sojourn period may be a hazard in an attempt to measure adjustment.

The definition "a foreign student who likes America is culturally adjusted; one who does not, is not," leaves some room for doubt in the mind of this reviewer. Actually, the assumption that seems to run through this study that this sort of "adjustment" is desirable may also be subject to question in the light of some other studies.

Foreign student advisers should certainly be acquainted with the method and findings of this study, but should probably look at it critically both as to method and seeming assumptions.—Clara L. Simerville, *Foreign Student Counselor, Oregon State College, Corvallis.*

Publications . . . in brief

THOMAS M. MAGOON
University of Maryland

Overview of Programs for Gifted

Encouraging the Excellent, Elizabeth Paschal, 1960. Fund for the Advancement of Education, 477 Madison Ave., New York 22, N. Y. 80 pp.

Attention to the atypical student at the upper ranges of intellectual talent has been of relatively recent, but rapidly growing concern in American education. This report presents an overview of some of the programs which the Fund for the Advancement of Education has sponsored, all focused upon stimulating the number and variety of intellectual opportunities available to gifted students.

The report traces the development of concern in establishing better high school—college articulation over the general education years of grades 11 through 14. Programs are described involving early admission to college and particularly admission with advanced standing. Programs described here include those of the College Entrance Examination Board, Ohio Council on Advanced Placement, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Coordinated Education Center in Pittsburgh, Oregon Council of Advanced Placement, St. Paul's School in New Hampshire, Miami University of Ohio, University of Akron, Trinity College, Washington County, Maryland, Westminister Schools in Georgia, Atlanta (Georgia) Public Schools, and Howard University.

The second section of the report describes enrichment or acceleration programs within schools and colleges including a large group of secondary schools. Some of the unusual programs cited include the Louisville, Kentucky, Junior Great Books Program, Summer Science and Mathematics Programs as well as several college honors programs.

The last section deals with financial assistance and the degree to which financial incentives contribute to decisions regarding whether to enter and regarding the subsequent performance of those who are so influenced.

In summary, this is a brief but stimulating description, somewhat in case study form, of a large number of recently initiated programs focused upon talented students.

Guides for Counselor and Counseled

A Guide to Counseling, Developing Employees Through Performance Reviews, S. Levy, 1960. 24 pp.

So You Are Going to be Counseled! S. Levy, 1960. 12 pp. Published by M. Bruce, 71 Hanson Lane, New Rochelle, N. Y.

These companion booklets represent a concise and readable approach to sophisticating the supervisor and subordinate with regard to their roles in performance reviews in an organizational setting.

The first booklet concentrates upon the supervisor. It equates counseling interviews with performance reviews which in this reviewer's opinion may create varying degrees of confusion particularly for the person who attaches other connotations to "counseling." Be that as it may, the material is organized in terms of questions or topics of practical concern to the supervisor. These include: What is the counseling interview? What are the benefits to be derived from a well-conducted counseling interview? What are some general blocks to effective counseling? What you can do to help the individual and his job; conducting the interview; after the interview; and tips on creative counseling. The general focus is upon stimulating a more person-than-job-oriented approach, and the briefly stated guides reflect quite sound application of knowledge of human behavior to the above topics.

The companion piece is similarly misleading, probably more so in that there is no qualifying subtitle. The presented information is again sound in content and well presented.

Such materials lend themselves readily to experimental evaluation of their impact upon supervisor and "counselee" behavior both in the interview and subsequently. It ought to be done.

Using Classroom Space

Normative Data on the Utilization of Instructional Space in Colleges and Universities, J. Doi, & K. Scott, 1960. American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Ave., Washington 6, D. C. 24 pp.

As might be expected, space utilization is an increasingly popular and vital problem in higher education. Twice as many institutions reported such studies during the period 1956–1958 as in the previous six-year period. This present publication is an extension of earlier Committee work devoted to the *Manual for Studies of Space Utilization* (1957). On the basis of 216 reporting institutions, the average number of classroom periods per week per room is 19, with the larger institutions showing slightly greater utilization. Laboratory periods averaged about 14 periods per week per room. The Committee finds considerable stability between the larger sample results and those derived earlier in developing the Manual. It also observes that "many institutions have yet to make really efficient use of their instructional facilities."

The report includes many other indices of use plus defining other measures which could be so employed.

Image of the Nursing Profession

Your Nursing Services Today and Tomorrow, Elizabeth Ogg. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 307, 1961. Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 E. 38th St., New York 16, N. Y. 28 pp. $.25 each with bulk rates.

This most recent pamphlet was prepared in collaboration with the National League for Nursing. Sections include the changing conception of the nurse's role (reinforcer of dependence and passivity to motivator to independence and optimal self-sufficiency); the growing complexity of the demands which have led to specialization; teamwork; and the growth of L.P.N. (Licensed Practical Nurses) and nurses aides. The author cites the fact that about half of hospital nursing services are now provided by nursing staff below the R.N. level, that only five per cent of R.N.'s are employed in neuropsychiatric hospitals, and that over 1,700 practical nurse training programs are now operative although only one-third are accredited as yet.

The content and audience seem rather different from many of the previous vocationally oriented Public Affairs Pamphlets. This is apparently aimed more at improving the image of the nursing profession and the knowledgeability among the general public regarding nursing services. In places, such as the rather belabored discussion of the Patient's Bill of Rights, this reader gained the impression that this was a relatively tangential and generalized way of accomplishing the above objectives. The case study material, however, has its usual clear impact.

Vocational Planning for Teen-agers

Jobs for You, H. Houghton, 1960. Teen-Age Guidance Series, Keystone Education Press, 71 Fifth Ave., New York 3, N. Y. 92 pp. $.50.

Jobs for You was prepared for both individually interested junior and senior high school students and for text usage in orientation or group guidance courses at these levels. The length makes the latter use more appropriate. The booklet starts off with discussion of vocational planning and the dangers of poor planning. Then the discussion turns to occupational structure, families, and occupational trends. Next the content shifts to consideration of self (abilities, interests, etc.) and then to comparison of job alternatives and selection.

There are quite a few self-help checklists, guides, and questions that should make the material both more involving and concrete. The major difficulty this reviewer senses is one of sequence or order. If appropriateness of vocational choice hinges upon the relatively unique characteristics of the chooser, why does material on the world of work precede material on self? It makes sense to this reviewer to regard exploration of the latter area as the basis for forming a personal yardstick or criterion against which alternative directions in the world of work may then be evaluated. In the reverse sequence the world of work can have little more than academic relevance to the individual student.

Association Activities

CARL McDANIELS, EDITOR

The Branches in Highlight

The Hawaii Personnel and Guidance Association

THE HAWAII BRANCH of APGA has been taking full advantage this year of a unique opportunity to perform a professional function which may well have international implications. Specifically, its focus has been on "problems of adjustment" experienced by foreign students coming to Hawaii to study.

This focus is occasioned by the fact that the University of Hawaii is establishing this year, with State Department sponsorship, a "Center for Cultural and Technical Interchange between East and West." It is more popularly referred to as The East-West Center. Its primary objective is the increase and development of mutual understanding between the peoples of the countries of the Pacific area; paralleling this is the betterment of American relationships with foreign peoples. It is encouraging and soliciting the fullest mutual cooperation and participation of foreign countries and institutions as well as mainland American universities and other institutions in the fulfillment of these objectives.

Cooperating closely with The East-West Center, HPGA's meetings since September, 1960, have involved panels of foreign students from such countries as China, India, Thailand, Okinawa, Philippines, and the Trust Territories of the Pacific, who have spoken informally of their backgrounds and experiences. From these conversations have come an interview form, designed to get at the underlying attitudes, values, perceptions, and aspirations of the incoming East-West foreign student body, which in the next several years will number close to 1,500 students. Plans are currently being made for a "mass interview" of a sample of some 40 students, conducted by HPGA members representing industry, government, education, and various social agencies, truly a community-wide project. Assessment of these results were made early in 1961 and reported at the Annual May Meeting. It is HPGA's hope that its efforts will make a significant contribution to the establishment of a sound counseling program at The East-West Center.

Guidance counselors in Hawaii have had a professional organization since 1937, when the Honolulu Vocational Guidance Association, a branch of NVGA, was certified. In 1957, a branch charter of the American Personnel and Guidance Association was awarded the group, and it has been known since as the Hawaii Personnel and Guidance Association. Monthly meetings are held at the University of Hawaii from October through May, with the annual election of officers taking place in April. Current officers are: President—Margaret Hotaling; Vice-President—Marion Saunders; Secretary—Maureen Chang; Treasurer—Sam Kakazu; Publicity—Robert Williams; Membership and Research—John Michel; Arrangements—Susan Slonaker; and Newsletter—Rollin Brewer. There are currently 99 members of HPGA, of whom 57 are affiliated with the national organization.

New Officers Assume Duties on May 1

To HELP the members of APGA become better acquainted with the officers who will assume leadership of APGA and its Divisions on May 1, brief biographical sketches of each APGA officer and divisional president follow.

Edward C. Roeber, APGA President

DR. EDWARD C. ROEBER, Professor of Education, University of Michigan, received his Ph.D. degree from Northwestern University in 1942. Dr. Roeber began his career as a teacher in the Wisconsin Public Schools. On the college level, his experience includes serving as Professor of Education at Hamline University and as Associate Professor of Education at Kansas State Teachers College (Pittsburg) and at the University of Missouri. Dr. Roeber is co-author of *Organization and Administration of Guidance Services* and *Occupational Information.*

Past-President and a professional member of NVGA, Dr. Roeber is also a member of ASCA, ACPA, ACES, and SPATE. Membership in other professional organizations includes the American Educational Research Association, Division 17 of APA, the Wolverine Personnel and Guidance Association, and the Michigan College Personnel Association.

C. C. Dunsmoor, APGA President-Elect

DR. C. C. DUNSMOOR, Director of the Board of Cooperative Educational Services, Bedford Hills, New York, holds an Ed.D. degree in Guidance from Harvard University. Before coming to his present position in 1949, Dr. Dunsmoor served as director of guidance activities in Long Beach, California, New Rochelle, New York, and Waterloo, Iowa. A Lieutenant Commander in the U. S. Navy during World War II, Dr. Dunsmoor has also taught on a part-time basis at 13 universities. He is co-author of *Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers, How to Choose That College*, and *College Costs, 1960.*

Dr. Dunsmoor has been the president of state guidance associations in California, New York, and Iowa. In 1953–1954 he served as President of NVGA and has served as the Director of APGA Guidance Advancement Program (GAP). In 1959 he was the first recipient of the APGA Nancy C. Wimmer Award.

Floyd C. Cummings, APGA Treasurer

FLOYD C. CUMMINGS, Director of Guidance Services and Testing at Evanston Township High School, Illinois, since 1950, holds a Ph.M. degree from the University of Wisconsin. Other graduate work has been done at the University of Wisconsin and Northwestern University.

Mr. Cummings has taught in a one-room rural school, junior and senior high schools, adult evening schools, and given graduate guidance courses at the University of Wisconsin.

Past-President of the Wisconsin Guidance and Personnel Association, he has served as Program Chairman of the Illinois Guidance and Personnel Association and Chairman of the Ethics Committee of the Chicago Guidance and Personnel Association. Mr. Cummings was Chairman of the APGA Committee on Development of a Code of Ethics.

Gail F. Farwell, APGA Treasurer-Elect

GAIL F. FARWELL, Associate Professor, School of Education, University of Wisconsin, since 1958, earned his Ed.D. in 1954 at Michigan State University.

For four years Dr. Farwell held the position of Guidance Director in the Herkimer, New York, Public Schools. He then served as Guidance Assistant and Instructor at Michigan State University, moving subsequently to The Ohio State University where he was Assistant and later Associate Professor.

A member of ACES, NVGA, SPATE, and ASCA, Dr. Farwell was Secretary of NVGA in 1960–1961 and was Chairman of the

APGA Constitution Committee from 1958–1961. He is also a member of Division 17 of APA and a member of the Wisconsin Personnel and Guidance Association of which he was Chairman of the Legislative Committee and a member of the Counselor Certification Committee.

William G. Craig, ACPA President

WILLIAM G. CRAIG, Associate Professor of Education, Associate Dean of Students, and Dean of Men, Stanford University, received his Ed.D. at Harvard University in 1955.

Having started his career as a teacher and coach at the high school level, Dr. Craig, after World War II service with the Naval Reserve, became a Counselor and Instructor in Education at Washington State University. He later held the positions of Associate Dean of Students and Dean of Students at this institution. Before coming to Stanford, he served for four years as Dean of Students, Kansas State College.

As a member of ACPA, Dr. Craig has served as Editor and as a member of the Association's Executive Board, Program Committee, and Executive Council.

Willis E. Dugan, ACES President

DR. WILLIS E. DUGAN, Professor of Educational Psychology and Director of Counselor Education at the University of Minnesota, earned his Ph.D. at this institution where he has been a member of the faculty since 1939. Previous experience includes high school counseling and teaching in addition to teaching in elementary schools. In 1960, Dr. Dugan was appointed as one of the consultants to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare and to the U. S. Commissioner of Education on matters relating to the National Defense Education Act.

A life subscriber in APGA and currently Chairman of the APGA Committee on Professional Preparation and Standards, Dr. Dugan is a member of the APGA Research Awards Committee and Co-Chairman of ACES Committee on Counselor Education Standards.

Helen Wood, NVGA President

Helen Wood, Chief of the Branch of Occupational Outlook and Specialized Personnel of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, is a graduate of Wellesley College and holds a master's degree from Columbia University.

Miss Wood began her career as a social caseworker with the Family Society of Philadelphia and later held appointments to the staff of the Bureau of Women and Children in the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry and with the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor. After the Occupational Outlook Service was set up, she transferred to that agency and played a large part in developing the *Occupational Outlook Handbook.*

A professional member of NVGA, Miss Wood has served as NVGA Secretary and Chairman of its Occupational Research Section.

Leslie O. Carlin, SPATE President

Leslie O. Carlin, Professor of Personnel, Central Michigan University, Mount Pleasant, earned his Ed.D. at Colorado State College. His experience includes serving as a rural teacher, a high school principal, and a U. S. Naval officer. Dr. Carlin has been on the staff of Central Michigan University since 1948.

Past-President of the Michigan College Personnel Association, he has served as SPATE Convention Program Chairman, SPATE Membership Chairman, and as a member of the APGA Membership Committee and the Placement Committee.

George W. Murphy, ASCA President

George W. Murphy, Guidance Counselor at the Catonsville Junior High Schools, is a graduate of the University of Maryland and has done graduate studies at that institution, Johns Hopkins University, and Loyola College. In 1952 he received a Ed.M. from the University of Maryland. Mr. Murphy has been a guidance counselor in the Baltimore County school system for the past six years.

A member of NVGA, SPATE, and ASCA, Mr. Murphy has served as APGA Membership Coordinator for Maryland. In 1960–1961 he was the APGA National Membership Chairman and a member of the ASCA Board of Governors.

Lloyd H. Lofquist, DRC President

Lloyd H. Lofquist, Professor, Department of Psychology, The University of Minnesota, recevied his Ph.D. from this university in 1955. Before joining the Minnesota faculty in his present position, Dr. Lofquist served as Chief of Vocational Counseling Service at the Minneapolis VA hospital and as Psychologist with the VA Regional Office in St. Paul. In his present position he is Coordinator of Rehabilitation Counselor Training and is a Research Associate and a member of the Executive Staff and Faculty Committee of the University's Industrial Relations Center.

A member of DRC and NVGA, Dr. Lofquist holds membership in a number of state and national organizations in the field of psychology and vocational rehabilitation.

Winning Studies for 1959–1960 Selected

The Research Awards Committee of APGA assumes the responsibility for appraising research literature and identifying that research which is of outstanding quality and of special significance to the membership of APGA.

The 1960–1961 committee was appointed by President Daniel D. Feder and consisted of the following individuals: William F. Anderson, Stanley E. Davis, Willis E. Dugan, William W. Farquhar, Joseph L. French, Dan Fullmer, Gordon Henley, Lee E. Isaacson, Abraham Jacobs, Ralph H. Johnson, Barbara A. Kirk, Stanley S. Marzolf, Sumner B. Morris, Cecil H. Patterson, Philip W. Pendleton, Robert H. Rossberg, Charles Scholl, Mark W. Smith, H. F. Vallery, Sylvia Vopni, Henry Weitz, and W. J. Dipboye, Chairman.

The committee undertook to survey the published research in approximately 55 journals and a variety of other sources. The publication period covered by the current committee was September, 1959, through August, 1960.

The procedures followed by the present committee were essentially those established by previous committees. Each member of the committee assumed responsibility for the nomination of articles in certain specific journals. In the cases of journals which were judged as more likely to contain research of greater interest to APGA members more than one reader was assigned.

As a result of this process, 40 articles were nominated. These 40 were then assigned to a minimum of three, and, in most cases, four committee members for evaluation. In no case was an article assigned for evaluation to the committee member who had nominated it. The nominated articles were evaluated on a five-point scale from "Definitely deserves an award" to "Definitely deserves no award."

As a result of this procedure the following studies were recognized as being the most outstanding during the period surveyed; research awards were presented to their authors at the APGA Convention at Denver.

O'Hara, Robert P., and Tiedeman, David V. Vocational Self Concept in Adolescence. *J. counsel. Psychol.*, 1959, *Vol. 6*, No. 4, 292–301.

Super, Donald E., and Overstreet, Phoebe L. *The Vocational Maturity of Ninth Grade Boys.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960.

Wrightstone, J. Wayne. Demonstration Guidance Project in New York City. *Harv. educ. Rev.*, 1960, *Vol. 30*, No. 3, 237–251.

Honorable mention awards were given to:

Baymur, Feriha B., and Patterson, Cecil H. A Comparison of Three Methods of Assisting Underachieving High School Students. *J. counsel. Psychol.*, 1960, *Vol. 7*, No. 2, 83–90.

Smith, M. Brewster. Research Strategies Toward a Conception of Positive Mental Health. *Amer. Psychologist*, 1959, *Vol. 14*, No. 11, 673–681.

Sanders, Ella M., Mefferd, Roy B., Jr., and Bown, Oliver H. Verbal-Quantitative Ability and Certain Personality and Metabolic Characteristics of Male College Students. *Educ. psychol. Measmt.*, 1960, *Vol. 20*, No. 3, 491–503.

The Chairman of the committee would like to express his appreciation to the committee members for their diligent work and fine cooperation during the course of fulfilling the function of this committee.—W. J. Dipboye, *Chairman.*

The President's Message

When the editor of the *Journal* reminded me that it was time to follow the tradition established by Past-Presidents Johnson, Arbuckle, and Feder, it was only natural to review their messages. This was a mistake. Their messages were not only appropriate but still valid. They covered many facets of APGA's mission in the American scene. They seemed to leave only the unimportant messages unsaid. Still, implicit in their presidential messages and explicit in current events persisted a theme which seemed worthy of a presidential report to the membership. Simply stated, it was a renewed concern for the welfare of those individuals whom we supposedly assist to higher-level attainments and commitments through expansion of counseling, testing, and other personnel services.

One of the fundamental beliefs undergirding the guidance and personnel movement has been respect for the individual. But caught up in a contagious frenzy for survival, it is easy to relegate concern for specific individuals to a secondary position. We can also forget that physical survival alone is not always worth the struggle, or that physical survival is hardly worth a proliferation of indignities to man. If we as guidance and personnel workers lose our sensitivities to people, or yield to pressures or special interest groups who give only lip-service to respecting the rights of others, we drift from our basic mooring. We become less concerned about the individual, his integrity, his dignity, and his privacy. Storm signals have been multiplying in direct proportion to the expansion of guidance and personnel programs.

The proper use of tests and records, for instance, has always been a source of worry to our profession. Recognizing tests and records as valuable approaches to the study of individuals and to the latters' self-study, professional counselors and personnel workers have protested vehemently against their misuse. We have had to, and still do, contend with many distressing practices, such as selling standardized tests to knowledgeable individuals, posting test scores on public bulletin boards, sending standardized test results home with students or through the mail, sending test results to employers, inaccuracies in hand- and machine-scoring tests, and almost fanatical faith in the accuracy of test predictions. As any "professional" can testify, these illustrations only "scratch the surface."

Indeed technology as well as hysteria to identify and to motivate able students will in all likelihood make significant additions to the list. The ability to copy records and test results by machine, for example, makes them more readily available. It is now possible to copy records within a few seconds. Why not send them to anyone who requests them? Or should the pupil have anything to say about who uses his test results and records? An official of one state has ruled that schools' cumulative records in that particular state must be opened to the inspection of parents. Few states offer any protection to the individual who seeks counseling or other types of assistance—it matters little what the setting, school, agency, or higher education. College counselors and personnel workers are equally affected by such pressures—witness the difference of opinion among college counselors and some college administrators with respect to a student's right to dignity and privacy.

There are many sides to the question of protecting students and clients from adults who feel that minors have little or no right to privacy. Although many issues would, in the final analysis, be settled on a legal basis, there are many others which would have to be resolved on the basis of the counselor's sensitivity to human values. Some of the problems might be more easily re-

solved if all counselors were able to meet more than minimum standards and were unquestionably qualified with respect to attitudes, understandings, and skills. Until we have a competent group of professional counselors, we will be plagued with some so-called counselors who are not even cognizant that there is such a thing as ethical behavior.

I do not presume to know the answers to the many controversial practices which are brought to the attention of APGA Headquarters. Matters of this kind, though, are not only the concern of APGA leadership but also individual members who must use their wisdom in demonstrating respect for individuals as well as openly protest in their daily fields of operation those practices which disregard human values. They have many opportunities "to stand up and be counted."

Inherent in this plea for respecting human values has been the almost desperate need for the professionalization of counselors and personnel workers, a theme emphasized again and again in previous presidential messages. But professionalization goes beyond knowledge and skill. Counselors cannot prosper by these alone. An active, pervasive respect for others, in addition to self-respect as persons and counselors, releases the full potentialities of their knowledge and skill. With adequate sensitivities, counselors can more nearly attain the goals which were at least partially responsible for the creation of their profession.—EDWARD C. ROEBER

WHO'S WHO

and Where

JOHN M. BUCKEY has been designated Director of Placement Services at New York University, New York City. Associate Director since 1958, Mr. Buckey headed the office's Educational Division.

RICHARD A. DURFEE, former Educational Advisor, National Home Study Council, has become Assistant Director of Education and Research, The Mortgage Bankers Association of America, Chicago, Illinois.

ROGER E. RICHARDS' appointment to the Senior Professional Staff of Richardson, Bellows, Henry & Company, Inc., Management Consultants, New York City, was announced recently. Before joining this firm, Dr. Richards served as the Senior Selection Consultant in the Corporate Personnel Division of the Raytheon Company.

DAN H. DANIELS, who is doing graduate work in business at Hofstra College, Hempstead, New York, is writing a series of articles for the *Evening Forum,* the college's evening-student newspaper, entitled "Where Are You Going?", dealing with making plans for one's life.

YALE J. LAITIN is now President of Survey Research Associates, Scarsdale, New York, and Lecturer on Human Relations at the Baruch School of Business, City College of New York. He was formerly with Research Institute of America as General Manager of the Management Surveys Division.

M. JEROME WEISS has been appointed Education Consultant to the Editorial and Sales Departments of Bantam Books, Inc., New York City. Dr. Weiss is Assistant Professor in the Department of Secondary Education at Penn State University, University Park, Pennsylvania.

JOHN T. BURKETT is now serving as part-time Counselor at Fallen Timbers Junior High School in the Anthony Wayne School District, Whitehouse, Ohio.

HAROLD P. VAYHINGER is now serving as Coordinator of Guidance and Research for the West Essex Regional School District, North Caldwell, New Jersey. He was formerly Vice-Principal of Oak Ridge High School, Oak Ridge, Tennessee.

EDWARD C. STANCIK has accepted an appointment by Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, Illinois, as Staff Associate for Southern California. From 1956 to 1960, he was Director of Student Personnel Services for the Phoenix Union High Schools and College System, Arizona.

BURTON R. LEIDNER assumed the position of Management Appraisal and Development Specialist with United Air Lines, Chicago, Illinois, on January 1. Prior to this time, he served as a Counseling Psychologist in the Testing and Counseling Center at the University of Texas, Austin.

LEEMAN C. JOSELIN is now Assistant Professor of Education in the Department of Guidance and Personnel, Graduate Schools of Education, Rutgers, The State University, New Jersey. Last year he was an advanced graduate student in the School of Education, University of Michigan, and Assistant Director of the all-year Counseling and Guidance Training Institute there.

Deceased:

ARTHUR P. TWOGOOD, Professor of Vocational Education, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa, on November 22, 1960.

CLEMENTS D. BROWN, State Supervisor of Guidance, Counseling, and Testing, Department of Education, Charleston, West Virginia, on February 11, 1961.

BERNARD GILLIAM, Assistant Guidance Director of the Washington, D. C., Public Schools, on February 23, 1961.

Western Personnel Institute

Western Personnel Institute (WPI) is unique among associations working for better collegiate student personnel work. It was started in 1930 and incorporated in 1937 as a non-profit association of colleges and universities and of sponsor members whose contributions, together with foundation grants, subsidize WPI's services to its member institutions. Four California colleges first joined in this pioneering cooperative effort to establish a center for research and service. Now the membership includes 40 leading public and private institutions in 10 western states, including Hawaii.

Each member college appoints a representative, usually the dean of students, to WPI's Academic Council. Council members facilitate exchange of information between their respective campuses and WPI headquarters. As a group, the Council helps plan the Institute's work in accord with each year's most critical needs. The Council's current chairman and vice-chairman are Deans W. W. Blaesser, University of Utah, and Donald DuShane, University of Oregon. They also serve as ex-officio members of WPI's Board of Directors. WPI has a national advisory committee consisting of Drs. W. H. Cowley, John G. Darley, Robert Gordon, T. R. McConnell, Ralph Tyler, and E. G. Williamson.

Among the Institute's resources is the J. G. Prosser Library, an outstanding collection of books, pamphlets, periodicals, and research materials on student personnel work. This has been built up during the period that the profession was developing; Algene Parsons is librarian.

Three years ago WPI established the Pasadena Counseling Center to provide a research and training facility. The Center is approved by APGA's American Board on Professional Standards in Vocational Counseling and for listing in the Directory of the American Board for Psychological Services of APA.

For some years the Institute has carried on a program of training for student personnel work in cooperation with Claremont Graduate School. Dr. Arthur L. Tollefson, Administrative Assistant, supervises the interns at WPI and the Counseling Center of which he is manager. He also assists in teaching the seminars on campus.

Through WPI, the deans exchange information about their student personnel procedures, studies, and experiments. For its member colleges, WPI publishes reports on new developments and annotated bibliographies of current student personnel literature. Originally, it also published occupational studies (the term "occupational brief" was coined here). Since more good occupational literature has been available from other sources, WPI has concentrated on methods of student personnel work.

An annual conference brings the members of the Academic Council together for two days of discussion with national leaders in student personnel work. WPI and its first executive director, Winifred Hausam, aided in forming the Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations, now APGA. Its present executive director, Helen Fisk, has served APGA in several offices and on committees.

Five years ago WPI built its own building which houses the library and counseling center and provides offices for the staff and interns and a meeting place for the annual conference. This headquarters is located at 1136 Steuben Street, Pasadena, California.

New Members of A.P.G.A.

The following is a list[1] of new members who have joined the American Personnel and Guidance Association between November 10, 1960, and January 10, 1961. This is the first supplement to the *1961–1962 APGA Directory of Members,* which was published in January, 1961.

A

Ackerman, Florence C 1215 N Wood Ave, Roselle, NJ. 5
Adams, Thomas E, Jr. Box 4047 Tech Sta, Lubbock, Tex. 6A
Adams, William J Rt 4, Box 211, Ripley, Miss. 5
Ahmad, Mahmoud T Whittier Hall, Columbia Univ, New York 27, NY. 3
Ahrens, Nyla J 695 Park Ave, New York 21, NY. 1
Albert, Frank R 11 Stanford Dr, Texarkana, Tex. 1
Allen, Harriet M Aberdeen HS, Aberdeen, Md. 5
Allen, James G 2049 S Vine St, Denver 10, Colo. 1
Allen, Jewell H Rt 1, Box 72, Linden, Tex. 5A
Allen, Russell O 715 S Washington, Ft Collins, Colo. 3
Aloysius, Bro, FSC Calvert Hall Coll, Towson 4, Md. 3
Alt, Mary J 1148 Oak Ave, Apt 2, Evanston, Ill. 5A
Amen, Sr M Ann Villa Maria Coll, Erie, Pa. 3A
Andersen, Dale G 5856 W 87th St, Los Angeles, Cal. 3
Anderson, Basil R Kreuznach Amer HS, APO 252, New York, NY. 3,5
Andrews, William O 420 N Washington St, Bloomington, Ind. 1A
Archer, Raymond L Densmore, Kans. 5
Arnspiger, Robert H 117 14th St, NE, Cedar Rapids,
Arthemise, Sr M 4835 Lincoln, Detroit 8, Mich. 3,4
Arthur, Mother Robert Marymount Coll, Tarrytown, NY. 1
Auxt, George State Dept Educ, Capital Bldg, Charleston 5, WVa. 2

B

Babich, Barbara J Rt 1, Box 866, Crescent City, Cal. 3
Bacon, Roy M 203 W Jackson St, Paulding, Ohio DAP
Bacote, Fannie PO Box 475, Kingstree, SC. 5A
Baggett, Rosa L Box 1144, Immokalee, Fla. 3A
Baribeau, Forrest D 901 Wheeler St, Cadillac, Mich. 6A
Barnes, Ronald E 3385 Washburn Ave N, Minneapolis 12, Minn. DAP
Barone, Michael J 381 Wright Ave, Kingston, Pa. 5
Bass, Thomas H 10054 Lazy Oaks Dr, Houston 24, Tex. 3,4
Batts, William O Vanderbilt Univ, 123 Kirkland Hill, Nashville 5, Tenn. 1
Bauer, Richard H 3809 Brighton Rd, Nashville 5, Tenn. 3
Baugous, Charles E PO Box 333, Avoca, Iowa. 5
Bay, Robert R 8541 Craighill, St Louis 23, Mo. DAP
Bernacki, John F Bucknell Univ, Lewisburg, Pa. 1A
Bevan, Ken 122 E 42nd St, New York 17, NY. DAP
Bibb, Jerry A 917 Rockford Rd, Birmingham, Ala. DAP
Bielec, Stanley I 29 E Frambes Ave, Columbus 1, Ohio. 4
Billings, Lewis W 1405 S Louisiana, Crossett, Ark. 5
Birklund, Carl H. 928½ Park St, Brinnell, Iowa. 3
Bittner, Joyce M Monmouth HS, Monmouth, Ill. 33

Blackman, Clarence Gardner Pub Schs, Gardner, Kans. DAP
Blochberger, Charles H 2730 Carlton SE, Grand Rapids 5, Mich. 3,5
Bogen, Judith R 2170 14 Patterson Dr, Eugene, Ore. 5A
Bonney, Warren C 2306 Devonshire, Austin, Tex. 3A
Borelli, Louis J 359 Walnut St, Pittsburgh 38, Pa. 5
Boyle, Rev Philip L Holy Cross Abbey, Canon City, Colo. 3
Bradley, Harry L Neill Hall, Washington State Univ, Pullman, Wash. 1
Bragg, Emma W 2308 E 20th St, Wichita, Kans. 3P
Brand, Vera J 111 Washington Ave, Charlottesville, Va. 3
Brandt, Marion G W Genesee Jr HS, Camillus, NY. 5
Brautigam, Richard H 931 Maple St, Pacific Grove, Cal. 3
Braxton, Mrs A T 3655 Livingston Rd, Jackson 6, Miss. DAP
Bridges, Mildred E 4919 Prentiss Ave, New Orleans 26, La. 5
Brindley, F B 895 Richmond Rd, Cleveland, Ohio. 3
Brittan, John H PO Box 932, Hammond, La. 3
Brocklehurst, Helen 458 Woodbury Rd, Glendale 6, Cal. 1
Brooks, Audrey W Rt 3, Box 207, Chester, Va. 5
Brown, Dirck W Univ Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa. 1
Brown, Floyd W Moorhead State Coll, Moorhead, Minn. 3A
Brown, Frank R 709 Elm St, Carson City, Nev. 3A
Brown, John W 3902 Lomaland Dr, San Diego 6, Cal. DAP
Brumfield, Robert D Box 72, Star Rt, Myrtle Grove, Fla. 5
Bruyer, Marjorie A 554 N Absaroka, Powell, Wyo. 5
Bryan, Richard Goodyear Tire Co, Akron, Ohio. 3A
Bryan, William C 1450 Roosevelt Blvd, Ypsilanti, Mich. 3
Buchheit, Jack R 125 W 43rd St, New York 36, NY. DAP
Bull, Orrin E 347 Zida St, Ft. Atkinson, Wis. 5

C

Caccamise, Mary L 2916 Hyder Ave SE, Albuquerque, NMex. 3
Caldwell, Ben R 858 S St Paul St, Denver 9, Colo. 5
Calmes, Robert E Univ Arizona, Tucson, Ariz. 3
Cardon, Bartell W 757 N 3rd E, Provo, Utah. 4
Carhart, Dorothy Keyport HS, Keyport, NJ. 5
Carney, Grace L 37 Saxon Rd, Worcester 2, Mass. 3
Carr, Alma L Rt 5, Switch Rd, Xenia, Ohio. 3
Carrillo, Manny Canon City HS, Canon City, Colo. 3,5
Casey, R J 208 E Jefferson St, Charlottesville, Va. 3
Castelli, Phillip V Harrison HS, Harrison, NY. 3A
Chapralis, Edith 5203 S Bedford Ave, Los Angeles 56, Cal. 5
Charnofsky, Stanley 905 Manzanita St, Los Angeles 29, Cal. 3
Churchill, Jack L 3876 S Grant St, Englewood, Colo. 1A
Clapper, Jim L P Coulter Hall, Purdue Univ, Lafayette, Ind. 3
Clarke, Velma G Talladega Coll, Talladega, Ala. 3
Claudia, Sr Mary 1901 S 72nd, Coll Lib, Omaha 9, Nebr. 1
Clayton, Joyce A 1257½ High St, Eugene, Ore. DAP
Cline, Blanche P 3044 67th SE, Mercer Island, Wash. 3
Coburn, Ralph F Univ Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras, PR. 3A
Cohan, Elizabeth C 3770 Gunston Rd, Alexandria, Va. 5
Collins, Myrtle T 1 Scott St, Colorado Springs, Colo. 5

[1] Style and abbreviations used in this listing were taken from the *1961–1962 APGA Directory of Members.*

Constas, Perry A Noyes Hall, 1212 E 59, Chicago 37, Ill. 1
Cook, Richard P 28 Van Cortlandt Ave, Ossining, NY. 3
Cox, James A 3000 Florida Ave, Jasper, Ala. 5
Cornwell, William L Memorial Jr HS, Huntington Sta, NY. 3
Costello, Richard K N 815 16th St, Coeur d'Alene, Idaho. 5
Cravens, Ray 649 Stanford, Salinas, Cal. 5
Crawford, Calvin C 1203 Lyle St, Reidsville, NC. DAP
Cronin, James T 4844 N Ashland Ave, Chicago 40, Ill. 3
Cross, John A Univ Oregon, Eugene, Ore. 3
Cummings, Richard D Nurnberg HS, APO 696, New York, NY. 3,5A

D

Dacus, Rodney T 508 S Avenue E, Portales, NMex. 1A
Daigle, Martin Y 2 Cedar St, Madawaska, Me. 3
Daley, Thelma T Ligon HS, Raleigh, NC. 5
Danglade, James K North Hall, Ball State Tchrs Coll, Muncie, Ind. 1A
Danielson, Harry A 11 Conewango Pl, Warren, Pa. 5
Davidoff, Pearl S 348 W Hall, Columbia Univ, New York 27, NY. 6A
Dawson, Cecelia M 330 19th Ave NE, St Petersburg 4, Fla. 3
Decker, Marlin K 725 Weldon St, Montoursville, Pa. 5
Deiulio, Robert S 10 Fayette St, Watertown, Mass. 3
Delia, Francis B 22 Middle Lane, Westbury, NY. 3
Delventhal, John W 246 Elmwood Dr, Colorado Springs, Colo. 3
Demons, Leona M PO Box 604, Darien, Ga. DAP
Dennis, Randolph D 127 Jarboe St, Lagrange, Ga. 5
Descroches, Dean L 3910 McKinley St NW, Washington 15, DC. 5
Dey, Glen R 5501 Adams, Lincoln 4, Nebr. 3
Dhanaporn, Boonsong Tchrs Coll, Chiengmi, Thailand. 1
Dietrich, Georgia V 1394 Birch Dr, North Tonawanda, NY. 5
Dixon, Carl H, Jr 390 Newport St NW, Atlanta 13, Ga. 5
Donato, Elsie J Union Hill HS, Union City, NJ. 5A
Dow, Sarah J 1203 W Main St, El Paso, Tex. 5
Dristle, Ronald L Box 703, Craig, Colo. 5
Dubow, Isaac W 210 W Pine St, Long Beach, NY. DAP

E

Eastley, Laurence E Box 141, Roscommon, Mich. 3A,5
Eichler, Delmer H Caseville Public Sch, Caseville, Mich. 3
Eiges, Dorothy NW Kensington Sch Dist, New Kensington, Pa. 3,5
Eiles, Richard R 2332-3 Patterson Dr, Eugene, Ore. 6A
Elowitz, Bessie 811 Lincoln Pl, Brooklyn 38, NY. 5
Engel, C Josephine 10464 La Salle St, Huntington Woods, Mich. 5
Eppert, Ann Indiana State Tchrs Coll, Terre Haute, Ind. 1,4
Esparza, Ben A 1813 Jenaro SW, Albuquerque, NMex. DAP
Evans, Francis B 14 Virginia St, Baldwinsville, NY. 3
Evans, Marvin L 1545 SE 129th Ave, Portland 33, Ore. 5
Everett, Adelbert G 2635 Quincy NE, Albuquerque, NMex. 3

F

Farley, Wayne S Star Rt, Concho, Ariz. 3
Farmer, Anthony X P Lab, 500 Summer St, Stamford, Conn. 3
Fassler, Arnold 462 Glenwood Lane, East Meadow, NY. 3
Ferrone, Patrick F 6508 School St, Des Moines 11, Iowa. 3A,5
Fisher, Everett J Rt 3, Sharp Rd, Powell, Tenn. 3
Flinchbaugh, Wanda K 321 Maxson Rd, Lancaster, Pa. 3
Flynn, John E 4161 Raleigh St, Denver 12, Colo. 5
Foster, Charles G 410 Crest Dr, Jefferson City, Mo. 2
Fowler, Mary A 1411 9th Ave S, Fargo, NDak. 5
Francis, Antonia P Univ Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras, PR. 1,2,3,4
Fraser, Alice K 2716 E 11th St, Bremerton, Wash. 5
Friedlander, Silvia B 6 Hampshire Rd, Great Neck, NY. 5

G

Galloway, Marjorie A 1207 Jefferson St, Mendota, Ill. 5
Galloway, Paula S 775 Comstock, Syracuse 10, NY. 1A
Gantz, Ben S 704 Saratoga, China Lake, Cal. 1,3
Geary, Rev Patrick G 554 Sunset Rd, Waterloo, Iowa. 3,5
Gentry, Robert F Box 542, Wright Quad, Indiana Univ, Bloomington, Ind. 1A
Gideon, Sara B 401 Baltimore St, Gettysburg, Pa. 2
Gillen, Joseph F Rt 4 Box 109 X, Gainesville, Fla. 4
Gillespie, David G 2306 Mary Glenn Dr, Tampa 4, Fla. 3,5
Gilliam, Jewell L 3202 28th St, Lubbock, Tex. 5
Gilliland, Burl E 3789 Cuscowilla Tr, Chattanooga, Tenn. 3,5
Girroir, John W Boston Univ, 332 Bay St Rd, Boston 15, Mass. 3,4
Goad, Geraldine 100 Adclare Rd, Rockville, Md. 5
Goggins, Alfonza R 2927 Renfro Dr NW, Atlanta 18, Ga. 5
Goldman, Bert A 333 Stadium Rd, Charlottesville, Va. 1
Gordon, Diane 405 Palmcrest A 12, Daly City, Cal. 5
Gorman, Alice 1800 Hillcrest Rd, Joliet, Ill. DAP
Gould, Sidney C 25 Exeter St, Brooklyn 35, NY. 5A
Grande, Alfonso J 52 Union St, Dover, NJ. 5
Gray, William H 1511 N 16th St, Philadelphia, Pa. 2
Green, James G Stuttgart Amer HS, APO 154, New York, NY. 3A,5
Green, Robert G 114 Hayes Ave, Port Clinton, Ohio. 5
Greene, Ronald R 69 Elmwood Dr, Delaware, Ohio. 1
Greenfield, Richard S 310 N Wisconsin Ave, Massapequa, NY. 5
Greenwald, Arlene 1734 E 23rd St, Brooklyn 29, NY. DAP
Gribbons, Jackie M 245 N Prospect St, Bowling Green, Ohio. 1
Grider, Edmonia W Box 121, Institute, WVa. 4
Guernsey, Clare E 1806 Harrison Blvd, Boise, Idaho. 3
Gustafson, Evelyn C 2502 W B St, Torrington, Wyo. 5
Gutsch, Kenneth U 1425 N Monroe, Tallahassee, Fla. 3

H

Haefner, Donald A 5440 N Woods Lane, Cincinnati 12, Ohio. 1A
Hagen, Milton M Rt 3 Box 248, Charlotte 3, NC. 5
Hagmaier, Roberta M 304 S Reid St, Shelbina, Mo. 5
Hall, Louise S Box 472, Soperton, Ga. 5
Hamel, Lawrence B 60 Hempstead Ave, Lynbrook, LI, NY. 3
Hammond, James M 1414 Wallace St, Winston-Salem, NC. 5
Hannah, Dallas W Rt 1, Corning, Iowa. 3
Hardy, Roy S Box 193, Fork Union, Va. 3
Harmon, Edward 12 Schuyler Dr, Jericho, NY. 3
Harper, Ronald B PO Box 1610, Fayetteville, Ark. 6A
Hase, Harold D 225-9 Cheshire Ave, Eugene, Ore. 6A
Haugerud, Albert R 3826 Eastern Ave, Seattle 3, Wash. 4
Hayes, Texanne A 2230 Morton Ave, Jackson, Miss. 5
Hazelip, Rev David L 4007 Frankfort Ave, Louisville 7, Ky. 3
Heath, Rev David G 5959 Broadway St, Gary, Ind. 5
Heilfron, Marilyn 3250 Divisadero St, San Francisco 23, Cal. 3
Herbert, Addie L 712 Fondulac St, Muskogee, Okla. 5
Herbst, Ralph E 2 Cedar Lane, Glen Head, NY. 3
Hoar, Sr M Roseanne Grove Pl, Pittsburgh 36, Pa. 5

Hohreiter, Jack E 4809 N Lesley Ave, Indianapolis, Ind. 1,3
Holladay, Don T 4 J Univ Terrace, Columbia, Mo. 3,6A
Holmes, Janis J 124½ Van Buren, South Haven, Mich. 3,5
Homfeld, Shirley L 10400 S Orr & Day Rd, Santa Fe Springs, Cal. 3,6P
Hooper, Margaret E 1015 N 6th St, Milwaukee, Wis. 3
Hopkins, Delbert G 1019 N Park St, Warren, Ohio. 5
Hopkins, Marian S 210 S Springer, Carbondale, Ill. 1A
Hoppin, Elizabeth D 519 W 121 St, A 2D, New York 27, NY. 6A
Horridge, James W 2450 N Court, Ottumwa, Iowa. 5
Hourtoule, Gilbert O 213 Lafayette Coll, Easton, Pa. 3
Houska, Robert B 2609 6th Ave N, Grand Forks, NDak. ■
Houston, Francys 217 W Wood St, San Marcos, Tex. 3
Houtz, M Patricia Box 3079 Redifer, University Park, Pa. 1
Hubbard, Carl C 520 Parkway Dr NE, Atlanta, Ga. DAP
Hudson, James A Box 81, Haven, Kans. 5
Hudson, La Verne H 1108 N Walnut Dr, Casa Grande, Ariz. DAP
Huggard, Aurella E 69 Woodlee Rd, Staunton, Va. DAP
Hull, Mona C 38 Walden St, Concord, Mass. 5
Hunt, G David 738 S Madison St, Hinsdale, Ill. 5
Hurt, Elma C 133 Pierce Dr, Colorado Springs, Colo. 5A
Hutto, Doris D 865 N 11th St, Laramie, Wyo. 3
Hyde, Harold G 467 Trumbull Ave SE, Warren, Ohio. 3
Hylton, J Paul 809 Hemlock Way, Edmonds, Wash. 3A,5

I

Ingersoll, Ralph W 464 E Worth St, Worthington, Ohio. 2,3
Iozzi, Phillip A 4 Yale Ave, Claymont, Del. 5
Irvine, Paul, Jr 3344 Chestnut St, Camp Hill, Pa. 3

J

Jacka, M Elizabeth 2232 Sherman Ave, Evanston, Ill. 1,4
Jackson, Rubye H 206 W 87th St, Shreveport, La. 5
Jacobs, Margaret E 48 W 85th St, New York 24, NY. 3A,6A
Jacobson, Alan B 2406 E 99th St, Chicago 17, Ill. 6P
Jardine, William C 2905 Monroe Ave, Evansville 14, Ind. 5
Jensen, Erland E 6129 Westridge Blvd, Minneapolis 24, Minn. 5
Johnson, Jasper H Whitworth Coll, Spokane 53, Wash. DAP
Johnson, John L Palisade, Colo. 5
Johnson, Ruby V 2310 Marguerite St, Lansing 12, Mich. 5
Jonasson, Jon F Oregon State Coll, Corvallis, Ore. 1A
Jones, Arlynne L Grambling Coll, Grambling, La. DAP
Jones, Carl D 610 E 400 N, Orem, Utah. 1
Jones, Jean H 142 W Marshall Ave, Langhorne, Pa. 5
Jones, Jennie B 1529 N 9th St E, Provo, Utah. 1
Jones, Willie Mae 902 North St, Beaufort, SC. DAP
Joy, S Lee 72 Houghton St, Auburn, Me. 3A,5

K

Kaminsky, Norman 71 W 182 St, Bronx 53, NY 5
Kane, Sr Mary J Mt St Marys Acad, North Plainfield, NJ. 3
Kauffmann, Lewis M 1746 E Beardsley Ave., Elkhart, Ind. 5
Kay, Anthony F Clark St, Ovid, NY. 5
Kearney, Harold M New Sharon, Me. 3
Kenney, Richard G 623½ E Grand River, East Lansing, Mich. 6A
Keochakian, Simon V Univ of Mass, Amherst, Mass. 1
Kerr, William D 703 1st Ave, Coralville, Iowa. 1A
King, Robert V 350 Lynn Ave., Landisville, Pa. 3
Kinney, Kenneth 200 Carroll Ave, Mamaroneck, NY. 3A,5
Kircher, Russell R 5708 Lonsdale Dr, Sacramento 22, Cal. 5
Knox, Betty E 18 S Pine Tree Dr, Havelock, NC. 3,5
Koonce, Ray F 107 Deborah St, Jefferson City, Tenn. 1
Kroyak, Rev Edward J 260 Surrey St, Springfield, Mass. 3,4,6A
Kruzan, Robert F 4444 S 9th St, Terre Haute, Ind. 3,5

L

Lally, Mary Harrison HS, Harrison, NY. 3A
Lane, Stephen 2324 N Cleveland St, Little Rock, Ark. 6A
Lantz, Mahlon 4148 Rivington St, Kalamazoo, Mich. 5
Larsen, Maren H 302 Corduroy Rd, Painesville, Ohio. 3
Laughlin, James W R D 1 Box 285, State College, Pa. ■
Lawrence, George L South Apts, Apt 20L, Orono, Me. 5A
Lee, John H 5 Roundabout Lane, Portland, Me. 1A,3
Legg, Ann G 314 Cleburne Ave, Marietta, Ga. 5
Leis, Ward W 1965 Fox Ridge Dr, Pasadena, Cal. 3
Lemieux, Henry A 160 Church St, Mansfield, Mass. 3,5
Leslie, Anita S 214 Fisher Rd, Grosse Pointe, Mich. 5
Lewis, Edwin C 1103 Curtiss St, Ames, Iowa. 1
Lewis, Mary E 1402 Washington Hgts, Ann Arbor, Mich. ■
Lewis, Phillip 7729 Teesdale Ave, North Hollywood, Cal. 5
Liggero, John G 90 Keith Rd, Glen Cove, NY. 5
Light, Louise L 1305 College Ave, Bluefield, WVa. 5
Lighthouse, Laurene Sue Ross St Coll, Alpine, Tex. 1
Likins, Todd R 120 Peyton St, Santa Cruz, Cal. 5
Lo Guidice, Samuel A 1010 25th St NW, Washington, DC. 5
Long, Robert L 611 S Mayflower, Monrovia, Cal. 3,5
Long, Robert O 628 N Wittenberg St, Springfield, Ohio. 1
Longwell, Evelyn C 1814 Morgan Blvd, Harlingen, Tex. DAP
Loukides, George 70 Riverside Dr, New York 24, NY. 5
Love, Leston L Box 203, University, Miss. 1
Loven, Russell P Postville Comm Sch, Postville, Iowa. 3,5
Lusk, Phoebe A 131 E Rosemary Lane, Falls Church, Va. 5

M

MacLeod, Basil B, Jr RFD, Rindge, NH. 3
Magness, William W 1115 W 8th St, Pine Bluff, Ark. 5
Magtoto, Rev Gilbert K Woodstock Coll, Woodstock, Md. 3
Malone, Rev James P 1800 Clinton Ave S, Rochester 18, NY. DAP
Manjos, Thelma D 6 St Luke's Pl, New York 14, NY. 3,6P
Manrique, Juan J Casilla Correo 1726, La Paz, Bolivia. 3
Marcellus, Bro Mission HS, Roxbury 20, Mass. 3
Massey, Charles F 1223 Yale Ave, Claremont, Cal. 5
Mattox, Janette 1901 E Iliff, A214, Denver, Colo. 1A
Maxwell, Martha J Univ of Maryland Couns Cent, College Park, Md. 1
May, Bro Julius F 1400 Troy Hill Rd, Pittsburgh 12, Pa. 5
May, Lomax L PO Box 163, Berry, Ala. 4
McCarthy, Jean Tri-State Coll, Angola, Ind. 1,3
McCool, Nellie R 2508 W Pike Pk Ave, Colorado Springs, Colo. 4,5
McEachern, Ernestine W Lucedale, Miss. 5
McGill, Frances D 2810 Beuhlo Vista Terr, Portland, Ore. 3A,5
McIlvaine, Sarah E 3000 Rebel Rd, Lafayette Hill, Pa. 3,5
McKinney, F J Tennessee State Univ, Nashville 8, Tenn. 1

McKinnon, Robert G Camden Central Sch, Camden, NY. 3,5
McSpadden, Carol F 2106 Fairmont Blvd, Knoxville 17, Tenn. 3
Meek, Doris A 5753 Chelton Dr, Oakland 11, Cal. 3
Melchert, Paul A 2809 10th St N, Fargo, NDak. 2
Meldrum, Helen 146 S Berkeley Ave, Pasadena, Cal. 3
Melody, Philip B 2200 Joan Ct, Falls Church, Va. 1A
Meredith, Mary J 1002 W Nevada, Urbana, Ill. 6A
Michael, Sr Miriam 5959 Broadway, Gary, Ind. 5
Michaels, Donna 205 Grange Hall, Box 18, University Park, Pa. 5A
Mikkelson, James E 1731 Simpson, St Paul 13, Minn. 5
Miley, Charles H Howard Payne Coll, Brownwood, Tex. 1,3P
Miller, Elaine N 105 Bluff Terr, Silver Spring, Md. 1A
Miller, Emmett G Lindsey Hopkins Educ Cen, Miami 32, Fla. 3
Miller, Mrs Gene B 318½ Genoa St, Arcadia, Cal. 3A,5
Miller, Keith L 1-36 Hinode Cho, Yokohama, Japan. 3
Miller, Melissa L 412 W 36th St, Savannah, Ga. 3
Miller, Richard L 2021 Kendall Lane, Louisville 16, Ky. 3A
Milos, Catherine W Columbia Univ, New York, NY. 6A
Mitroff, Edward J 35895 Cen Ridge Rd, North Ridgeville, Ohio. 5
Moe, Jean M 2901 Claremont Ave, Berkeley 5, Cal. 1
Moeller, Robert C 3754 N 40th St, Milwaukee 16, Wis. DAP
Moffitt, Joseph O 2158 N Broadway, Springfield 1, Mo. 5
Monello, Lillian B Greenburg Sch Dist 8, White Plains, NY. 3,5
Monroe, Eleanor N 710 Myrtle Lane, Moultrie, Ga. 5
Montana, Patrick J 247 Mulberry St, New York 12, NY. 3
Monticciolo, Ben 3 Florida Ave, Beach Haven Park, NJ. 5
Morris, Mary M 502 Summer Ave, Newark 4, NJ. 3,5
Morrison, Gerald H 1320 Lydia St, Wichita 13, Kans. 5
Morrissey, William J Box 308, Hortonville, Wis. DAP
Morse, Alice N 3435 E Clinton Ave, Fresno 3, Cal. 1
Muldoon, John O 810 11th Ave S, St Cloud, Minn. 5A
Murakawa, Hubert K 91-1007 Kuhina St, Ewa Beach, Hawaii. 3A,5

N

Nagel, Bro George W Univ Dayton, Dayton 9, Ohio. 3P
Nesbit, Daun W 1305 Cheves Pl, Lancaster, Pa. 1,4
Newton, Birchard Rt 1 Box 30B, McAllen, Tex. 5
Nilson, Edith Lincoln St 201, Worcester 5, Mass. 3,5
Nitzschke, Dale E 166½ N Lancaster, Athens, Ohio. 3
Nottage, Donald H 5533 Morgan Ave S, Minneapolis 19, Minn. 3A,6A
Novak, David J 3226 Rex St, Pueblo, Colo. 3
Nugent, Timothy J 1414 Rose Dr, Champaign, Ill. 3,6A

O

O'Connor, Robert D Sta A Box 431, Hattiesburg, Miss. 1A
O'Connor, Robert K 38 Market Square, South Paris, Me. 3
Olsen, Leroy E 508 N 3rd Ave, Sturgeon Bay, Wis. 3
Olson, Donald E 3332 32nd Ave, Minneapolis 6, Minn. 5
O'Regan, Frank X 91 Pleasant St, Stoughton, Mass. 3;5

P

Pace, Herbert C Rt 1 Box 151, Southwick, Mass. 3,5
Pauline, Lanorjane G 718 W Park, Pasco, Wash. 5
Pearson, Robert D Box 437, Britton, SDak. DAP
Pederson, Merrill J 700 S Mill St, Redwood Falls, Minn. 5
Pence, Edward A 521 Mulberry St, Mt Vernon, Ind. 3A,5
Perkins, Ruth A 2335 Bienville Ave, New Orleans 19, La. 5
Perry, Harold T 4609 Mimosa St, Baton Rouge, La. 5
Perry, Shirley A 4220 Guilford Dr, College Park, Md. 5
Peters, Athena 643 W 171 St, New York 32, NY. 1
Peters, Paul N 4776 Magnolia Ave, Riverside, Cal. 5
Pfeiffer, Isobel L 542 Bowman Dr, Kent, Ohio. 5
Phelps, Thora A 3817 Vine Ave, Sioux City 6, Iowa. 1
Pickett, Dorothy C 2234 W Poplar St, San Antonio 7, Tex. 5
Pifer, Harriet B 287 Mt View St, Grand Junction, Colo. 5
Pihlblad, Gladys K 408 S Garth St, Columbia, Mo. 1
Popper, Henrietta G 199-18 58th Ave, Flushing 65, NY. 3A
Powell, Robert F 400 Lindberg Ave, West Lafayette, Ind. 3
Powers, Blanche J Person County Schs, Roxboro, NC. DAP
Poyourow, Donald F 109 St Marks Pl, New York 9, NY. 4
Prillaman, Jay R Box 61 Barton Hall, Normal, Ill. 3
Pyper, John C 500 W Oak St, Carbondale, Ill. 1

Q

Quinn, Mary T Westford Acad, Westford, Mass. 3A,5

R

Rabenstein, John E, Jr 1687 Laketon Rd., Pittsburgh 21, Pa. 6A
Rahn, Warren J 924 Otter Ave, Oshkosh, Wis. 5
Read, Phyllis M 2930 Silver Lake Blvd, Cuyahaga Falls, Ohio. DAP
Reber, Francis S 31 Linden Terr, Baltimore 4, Md. 3
Redmond, Joseph M 6114 Excelsior Blvd, St Louis Park, Minn. 3
Reeve, Gladys K 27144 Eastvale Rd, Rolling Hills, Cal. DAP
Reeves, Jack R 1681 W 82nd Pl, Denver 21, Colo. 5
Reeves, Mildred J 2548 Paulstan Dr, Sarasota, Fla. 5
Reid, Harriet E 1019 Maple St, Fairfax, Va. 3,5
Reinhard, Ruth H 251 Somerville Ave, Tonawanda, NY. 6A
Relyford, Ruth G 410 Lincoln Ave, Albany, Ga. 5
Richards, Barbara L 205 W Columbia, Champaign, Ill. 5A
Ricketts, Verna B 5003 Georgia Ave, Nashville 9, Tenn. 5
Riley, Glen 4941 Castana, Lakewood, Cal. 3
Ripley, Robert E Univ Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minn. 1A
Robinson, Eugene E 131-9 Nimitz Dr, West Lafayette, Ind. 1A,3
Robinson, Ted R 225 W 16th St, Ames, Iowa. 1
Rockwood, Ruth T 6440 Five Views Rd, Tacoma 7, Wash. 5
Rooney, Geneva F 1593 A St, Arcata, Cal. 5
Rosbrugh, Lolis M Rt 3, ElDorado Springs, Mo. 5
Rose, Gerald W 3408 N Oakland Ave, Milwaukee, Wis. 6P
Rosevear, Ray W 1005 S Arnold, Mt Pleasant, Mich. 3A,5
Ross, Norreen K 228 W First Ave, Chico, Cal. 5
Rugg, Antoinette J 270 Delaware Ave, Bay Shore, LI, NY. 3
Rushing, Mildred H Rt 4 Box 38, Carthage, Miss. 5
Russell, James C 125 Greenwood Dr, Falls Church, Va. 1A
Ryan, Phyllis E 3 Everette St, Walpole, Mass. 3
Ryska, John W 5454 E Sussex, Fresno 27, Cal. 3,5

S

Sagen, H Bradley Univ Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minn. 1A
Sale, Katharine I Mechanicsburg Jr HS, Mechanicsburg, Pa. 5
Salsburg, Glenn W 81 S Main St, Dolgeville, NY. 3,5
Schafer, Reuben J 6841 Washburn Ave S, Minneapolis 23, Minn. 3A,5

Schifano, Charles P 1928 Ganyard Rd, Akron 13, Ohio. 3A,5
Schleider, Cora 295 Ocean Parkway, Brooklyn 18, NY. 5
Schoening, Lewis H 60 E Wabasha, Winona, Minn. 5
Schrader, Don R 4343 E Avalon Dr, Phoenix, Ariz. 3,5
Schreiner, Bernhardt 504 Elm St, Douglass, Kans. 5A
Schwartz, Clare L 1000 W Braddock Rd, Alexandria, Va. 3
Scott, Keith L Box 420 Dunn Hall, Normal, Ill. DAP
Scott, Leo S 11800 E 67th St, Raytown 33, Mo. 3,5A
Sculley, Josephine M 1507 Carlton NE, Grand Rapids 6, Mich. DAP
Segal, Stanley J 46 E Winspear Ave, Buffalo 14, NY. 1,3
Sen, Mrs Bani 122 B Koraya Rd, Calcutta 17, India. 3
Seymour, John C 318 24th St, Tuscaloosa, Ala. 1
Shaw, Eugene D Box 468, Davenport, Wash. 3A
Shaw, Mary N 2210 N Weber St, Colorado Springs, Colo. 5
Shelton, Louise 2030 Craig St, Apt 4, Winston-Salem, NC. 3A
Sherer, Mary E 7016 Palm Dr, Des Moines 22, Iowa. 3
Sherrow, Jeanne E 100 State St, Providence 8, RI. 1
Shom, Charles L 19 Bozile Rd, Rhinelander, Wis. 3
Siggers, Kathleen W Ohio State Univ, Columbus, Ohio. 8
Simons, Richard D 30 Wilson St, Hartsdale, NY. 3
Slattery, John R 6 Uxbridge St, Worcester 5, Mass. 5
Sliger, Lowell C Univ Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn. 1,5
Sloma, Jay 2757 Claflin Ave, New York 68, NY. 6P
Smith, Edwin B Indiana Univ, Bloomington, Ind. 1A,3
Smith, Ethel B Box 246, Bayfield, Colo. 5
Smith, Glenn E Dept Public Inst, Lansing 4, Mich. 2
Sniderman, Morris 317 Robina Ave, Toronto 10, Canada. 3A
Snook, Loring F, Jr 5412 Sierra Dr, Riverside, Cal. 1A
Sotis, James N 153 N Main St, Port Henry, NY. 3A,5
Sparks, Paula A 354 Princeton Blvd, Lowell, Mass. 1A
Spice, Charles G, Jr 800 S 9th St, Laramie, Wyo. DAP
Standlea, Leslie H 877 Sharon Way, Upland, Cal. 1,3
Stelle, R Westbrook 118 Smith St, Manlius, NY. DAP
Stenson, Mary A 9112 Headingly Ave, Albuquerque, NMex. 3,5A
Stewart, Cornelius 458 Eastern Parkway, Brooklyn 25, NY. 6P
Stokes, William A Qtrs 6601F, USAF Acad, Colo. 3
Stout, John A 367 Worcester St, Wellesley Hills 82, Mass. 1,3,4
Strecker, Carolyn A Depauw Univ, Rector Hall, Greencastle, Ind. 1
Sullivan, Rev Darius J Univ Dallas, Box 1330, Dallas 21, Tex. 1
Sullivan, James A 120 West St, Randolph, Mass. 3
Surgent, Dorothy M 143 Overland Ave, Duquesne, Pa. 3A,5
Sutton, Constance D 326 Summer St, Kissimmee, Fla. 5

T

Tanenbaum, Bella B 3211 Ave I, Brooklyn 10, NY. 3A
Tatum, Julian P 1115 N El Paso St, Colorado Springs, Colo. 3A
Taylor, James W 9000 W 2nd St, Denver 26, Colo. 3A
Theoratos, Julia 2210 Whitesburg Dr S, Huntsville, Ala. DAP
Thompson, Edwin A 108 Burbank Dr NW, Atlanta 14, Ga. 5
Thompson, Marie E 775 Goff Ave NE, Orangeburg, SC. 1
Thompson, Robert L 403 Union St, Hereford, Tex. 5
Thweatt, Roger C 1627 K Spartan Vill, East Lansing, Mich. 4
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